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Volume XVI *May, 1984*

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REVIEW

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The purpose of this publication is to provide encouragement for faculty research and to make available results of such activity. The *Review*, published annually, accepts original scholarly work and creative writing. West Georgia College assumes no responsibility for contributors' views. The style guide is Kate L. Turabian's, *A Manual for Writers*. Although the *Review* is primarily a medium for the faculty of West Georgia College, other sources are invited.

An annual Bibliography includes doctoral dissertations, major recitals and major art exhibits. Theses and articles in progress or accepted are not listed. A faculty member's initial listing is comprehensive and appears in the issue of the year of his employment. The abstracts of all master's theses and educational specialist's projects written at West Georgia College are included as they are awarded.

MYTH, THE MINOTAUR, AND MORRIS'S *THE FIELD OF VISION*

*by Adelyn Fullerton**

In 1948 Wright Morris described part of the role of the contemporary novelist as "an endless and heartbreaking search for an unstated myth."[1] His own novel *The Field of Vision* (1956), though, is a reader's delight because he has found an instructive mythology and utilized it impressively. Critics have recognized and discussed quite thoroughly his use of the Great American Myths of the Frontier and the Wilderness, as well as his use of mythic Success figures Davey Crockett and Ty Cobb. They have neglected, however, two levels of myth which Morris develops extensively. The first is his use of classical Mycenaean mythological allusions, in particular his use of the tale of the Minotaur; the second is his use of the device of *mythic location*[2] which creates a mythic aura about the setting of the entire novel and invests it with a symbolic meaning. These two levels of myth form a complex aspect of Wright Morris's novel, interlacing characters, their moments of action, and the overall message in a stimulating fashion.

Although Morris does not force the action, the characters, and the message of his book into a rigid mold based upon the Mycenaean myth of the Minotaur, he does allude to it often enough so that it becomes a prominent thread throughout the book. This tale is based upon the family of King Minos of Crete.[3] When Minos was trying to gain the throne, he asked for a sign from Poseidon to authenticate his claim upon the crown. Poseidon sent it in the form of a magnificent white bull which he assumed Minos would gratefully offer as a sacrifice to his benefactor. Minos, however, was so awed by the bull that he added it to his personal royal herd and sacrificed instead another good bull. While King Minos was away at war, Poseidon took revenge on Minos for this disrespectful slight and arranged for Pasiphae, Minos's wife, to be seduced by the bull. The offspring of their union was monstrous, a male child with a human body but the head and tail of a bull. Eventually this monster, called the Minotaur or Asterios, became a threat to the community and was hidden

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[1]Cited by David Madden, *Wright Morris* (New Haven: College and University Press, 1964), p. 47.

[2]Professor Darrel Abel used this special terminology during a Hawthrone seminar at Purdue University, Spring 1974. For him, the term "mythic location" is a somewhat more general term which could include the **world navel** of Joseph Campbell, to be mentioned later in the paper, but would go beyond it to include any place with special properties - - that is, invested with or haunted by symbolic meaning - - such as a cave, a mountain top, a lake area, a garden, and so forth.

[3]This summary of the myth of the Minotaur is based upon material from Joseph Campbell, *The Hero With A Thousand Faces*, 2d ed. (Princeton: Princeton University Press, Bollingen Series Paperbacks, 1972), pp. 13-15, 23-25; C. Kerenyi, *The Gods of the Greeks* (London: Thames and Hudson, 1951), pp. 109-11, 260-70; and Martin P. Nilsson, *The Mycenaean Origin of Greek Mythology* (1932; rpt. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1972), pp. 169, 171, 176.

away in an incredibly complex labyrinth designed by the royal master craftsman, Daedalus. Children brought to Crete as spoils of war from other lands were used to feed the Minotaur. (The historical base for this part of the myth comes from the fact that Minoans were fond of the bullfight which had become a popular and probably profane entertainment — rather than a religious one as proposed by some current myth experts — and young captives of war were often forced to train to perform with and/or fight the bulls just as Roman captives would later be trained as gladiators.[4]) One day, however, Ariadne, Minos's daughter, was moved to bring an end to this situation. She loved the handsome youth Theseus who, with other Athenian youths, was headed for doom in the labyrinth of the Minotaur. After making him promise to take her away as his wife, Ariadne provided Theseus with a skein of thread by which he could retrace his route to the exit after he had killed the Minotaur. Some later versions of the story say that she provided him with a radiant crown by which the labyrinth was so fully illuminated that the wearer could see his way out.[5] Either way, Theseus, with Ariadne as accomplice, killed the Minotaur and escaped from the labyrinth.

Morris primes his reader for allusions to this myth early in the book. He compares the bullring to the Roman Coliseum[6] which suggests immediately the classical world and the realm of myth. When Morris introduces the character Gordon Boyd, he identifies him with a family appropriately named "Crete" (37). In fact, Boyd even wears the hand-me-down "clothes of the Crete boy" (108), and Mrs. Crete shares with Boyd "the Gods in her pantheon" (108). And if that is not enough to implant the idea of mythic possibilities in most readers' minds, the word CRETE is emblazoned on the local hometown lumberyard fence (103). All of these references nudge the reader into a frame of mind which is receptive to the Mycenaean mythology Morris uses as lumber to construct his novel.

Numerous direct and indirect references to the Minotaur abound in the book. Needless to say, the bulls which the matadors fight reflect the theme of the confrontation of bull and human throughout. For instance, after his playful confrontation with the little fawn-colored bull, Boyd compares his actions to those of Theseus, describing himself as "the gray haired youth who slew the Minotaur with a squirt of pop" (101). The heroism involved here is not on as grand a scale as classical mythology necessitates, but then that's the only kind of heroism Boyd is capable of at the time. Dr. Lehmann also sees a Minotaur, but his is personified by Mr. Scanlon. Lehmann describes himself as staring into "the sightless eyes of the Minotaur. Half

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[4]Nilsson, *Mycenaean Origin*, p. 176.

[5]Ibid., p. 175.

[6]Wright Morris, *The Field of Vision* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, Bison Book, 1974), p. 12. Further references to this book will be noted parenthetically in the text and will refer to this same edition.

man, half myth, the emerging God, dream-haunted, gazed toward the light with eyes in which the pupils had not been drilled" (63). Here Scanlon's refusal to confront the modern world around him with its absence of frontier challenges has made him blind to reality. In the process he has become a frightening monster to his family, capable of subverting the sensibility of his small great-grandson so completely that the child risks the loss of meaningful life, just as the mythic Minotaur consumed the lives of captive children. Of course by the end of the book, Boyd, the Theseus, has confronted and been victorious over more than just the Minotaur in the form of the fawn-colored bull; he has also seduced little Gordon away from the Minotaur Scanlon and his frontier ethos. These two specific references to the Minotaur legend, then, work together and tease readers to look for more.

Other allusions to the Minotaur are more metaphorical. The 40,000 people at the bullfight, Boyd suggests, have an equal number of personal "monsters, half man, half beast" (59) which they must confront in their own version of the bullfight. Dr. Lehmann recalls his first bullfight when, at the moment of truth in the ritual, he was confouned by the "image of the man as part of the bull" (73). Somewhat later, he has an even more vivid impression of this merging of man and bull during the ritual and observes, ". . . at that moment man and bull were one. The youth seemed to grow out of the bull's neck and shoulders, . . . a living centaur, the archetypal man growing out of the beast" (113-14). These same centaur impressions are experienced even earlier, but less explicitly by Boyd (58). Indeed, the Minotaur was not a centaur; the Minotaur had a man's body with a bull's head and tail, whereas the centaur had the body and legs of a horse and the head, trunk, and arms of a man. The principle of both is basically the same, nevertheless: two different beings merge into one new mythic creature. The centaur idea, then, becomes Morris's complementary twist on the basic Minotaur theme.

In addition to suggesting that Scanlon is the Minotaur and Boyd the Theseus figure, the novel also allows a metaphorical equation between Lois McKee and Minos's wife, Pasiphae. The paternity of Lois's children, in particular son Gordon, is figuratively open to question because the children seem so unlike her husband, Walter McKee. Of course the novel does not suggest that Lois literally had children by anyone other than McKee, not in the supposedly literal fashion that Pasiphae bore the Minotaur as a result of the consummation of her lust for the white bull of Poseidon. Nor does Lois's son Gordon grotesquely resemble someone other than McKee in the literal way that the Minotaur had some of the physical characteristics of his sire, the bull. Yet Lois is strongly attracted to Boyd, just as Pasiphae was attracted to the bull. ". . . Her body . . . knew" (36) strong desire, and when Boyd kissed Lois on the porch thirty years

earlier, she was "drunk on Jove's nectar" (90) and hopelessly "bewitched" (92), in fact "swept off her feet, and . . . never . . . quite the same again" (182). Her dream, complete with collapsing bed, gives her the feeling of at least a spiritual consummation with Boyd, if not more than that, because "somewhere she had once read in the *Reader's Digest* of girls who thought that a kiss might give them a baby — but it was not at all as silly or as strange as some people seemed to think. Not one of them had been kissed by a man like Boyd" (183).

Is "MAMA'S SLIP . . . SHOWING" (216) — that is, is Mama Lois's sexual indiscretion with Boyd, whatever its nature, manifest in her son Gordon — as McKee's postcard suggests? McKee's choice of tourist postcards may not have been a carefully reasoned one, but it reveals the workings of his subconscious mind as it drives for the truth, an inadvertent slip that belies his nagging fear of his wife's infidelity. Boyd himself interacted with Walter and Lois's children "like they were his kids" (74), and young son Gordon shows a passion for Gordon Boyd that he has never shown for anyone else (176). Walter McKee "had the damdest sort of feeling . . . the boy was *really* Gordon's after all" (174). Even the son Gordon seems confused about his parentage, and "right from the first he didn't really know *who* he was" (172). Of course by the end of the book, Boyd has figuratively proclaimed his paternity of the grandson Gordon by luring the boy away from the traditions of Scanlon and McKee. "'You're too late . . .'" he announces to the disturbed Walter. "'Whose boy you think he is?'" (246). Son and Grandson Gordon, like the Minotaur, are indeed a visible slip in the expected order. Morris teases the reader into accepting almost literally his description of Lois as "the chaste virginal mother of three sons and nine grandchildren. All by divine compensation, miraculous birth . . . " (54).

Boyd arouses feelings of lust in Lois, then, just as Poseidon's white bull aroused Pasiphae. Lois's husband McKee is a decidedly less virile man who tends to perpetuate his wife's usual iceberg tendencies; he is a Minos who stayed away at the wars too long and was not able to satisfy his wife or somehow prevent the conception of the Minotaur child. From the beginning, Boyd is the virile, phallic man who, unlike McKee, fails to be responsible for his unzipped fly (16). The giant Pepsi bottle in the middle of the bullring makes Walter only smile in recognition of its phallic appearance (20); a Pepsi bottle in Boyd's hands, though, becomes an extension of his penis, conjures up memories of childhood urination rituals that border on the erotic (54), and masters the fawn-colored bull. Boyd was the man who "got the girls in trouble" (195) while McKee stood by "like a wooden Indian" (34) and permitted Boyd to deprive him of the first kiss from Lois.

Walter McKee's sexual inadequacy stems from that initiation ritual during which Walter shot a hog for his uncle in Texas. The ear of corn, strategically placed in McKee's fly to attract the hog, "stuck out in the air like something else" (132). The onlookers "hooted" at the sight, and McKee was convinced that even the hog "laughed himself to death" (133) over McKee's maize phallus. He felt as processed as the hog that day, and figuratively McKee's penis must have been one of the "soft parts" (132) boiled down with the hog's innards. Over thirty years later, Boyd's "amused smile" (246) sends chills through McKee's pelvic zone, for he realizes that Boyd and everyone else know that he is basically an impotent man. He can buy endless cigars and bull horns (249-50), each an artificial phallus, but still, when he gets back into the car with them, no one is impressed, least of all Lois (250). It is true that Walter McKee actually killed the hog while Boyd only figuratively kills a bull in the bullring, but then Boyd is skilled at killing "woodpeckers" (24), and a wood pecker is precisely what Walter McKee has. McKee is too much like his son's steers —"no fight," no sexual drive (130) - - completely the opposite of the mythic white bull sent by Poseidon.

All of the above suggest that Wright Morris is counting on readers to know the main figures in the classical Minotaur myth, just as he is counting on them to appreciate his use of mythic locality — a deliberately selected setting invested with symbolic meanings because of its special properties. On one level, that setting suggests the Minotaur tale also because it is both physically and psychologically a labyrinth. The structure that houses the bullring is designed so that tunnels lead into the center of the arena to the actual bullring (53, etc.) just as tunnels led to the center of the Minotaur's labyrinth. In the actual bullring, as well as more metaphorically among the spectators, "invisible zones . . . were meant to stylize and limit the action" (58); likewise, the passages of the intricate labyrinth constructed by Daedalus literally limited the action of any unfortunate wanderer. Even more overwhelming in the novel, though, are the psychological labyrinths which face those who would wander through the psyche. Dr. Lehmann expresses well Theseus's escape strategy, but in reverse, as he describes what any psychotherapist must do: "One had to take the ends of a frazzled string . . . and follow them back . . . to the heart of the labyrinth" (63). Likewise, for Lehmann, exploring the mind of Paula Kahler was a little like being in a labyrinth because "these echoing corridors would go on endlessly" (75). Indeed Lehmann concludes that the key to the psyche is "at the heart of the labyrinth" (120) of the mind. Even Scanlon had been overwhelmed by the labyrinth of technology that defied his early 19th century mentality and he could only turn his back on the symbol of technological progress, the maze of railroad tracks that "were tangled like mop strings" (224).

Other references to the labyrinth pick up on the idea of its darkness and the later version of the tale which suggests that Ariadne rescued Theseus by giving him an illuminating crown of light to see his way out. As the darkness of evening fills the bullring, the spectators cry out for light (179, 206) so they can see the completion of the struggle of matador and bull. Lehmann describes this as "the inscrutable impluse . . . reaching for the light" (204). He gives as the reason for this demand an interest in self-preservation, for "in the fading light one could hardly be sure whether it was man or beast. One could not be too careful. Dusk in the windy labyrinth" (200). And when he envisions the incredible processes of his own or any human mind, he pictures it as "a labyrinth of lights . . . A milky way in a rhythmic cosmic dance, evolving and dissolving, assembling and dissembling" (203). The ideal way, then, to survive the labyrinth, whether it is literal or psychological, is to demand, to hope for, as much light as possible so the intricacies of the maze or mind can be fully appreciated and successfully negotiated.

In addition to alluding to the mythic labyrinth of the Minotaur, *The Field of Vision* suggests a mythic location where heroic transcendence can occur. In *The Hero With A Thousand Faces*, Joseph Campbell calls such a spot "the world navel,"[7] the "*axis mundi,*" the "Immovable Spot," "around which the world may be said to revolve."[8] Under the surface of this spot is an abundance of pro-life energies. The special realm usually includes a tree of life and an unceasing spring of water. Marked elevation often characterizes the spot. There the cosmic person, "the hero as the incarnation of God is himself the navel of the world, the umbilical point through which the energies of eternity break into time."[9] This world navel, existing in timelessness, becomes "the symbol of the continuous creation: the mystery of the maintenance of the world through that continuous miracle of vivification which wells within all things."[10] Campbell talks about a "transcendence"[11] that is beyond good and evil in the same way Wright Morris talks about transformation, the key word of his novel's message.

At one point Morris's character Boyd echoes Campbell and calls the bullring "the sanded navel of the world" (59), around which 40,000 spectators cluster for a significant experience. He calls the ring variously "this golden eye . . . a mirror, . . . like the hub caps" of "a crazy goddam world" (59). Here *la suerta suprema*, the moment of truth (61), can be continually recreated. Even McKee knew that "if you got as many people

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Campbell, *The Hero*, pp. 40-45.

[8]Ibid., p. 41.

[9]Ibid

[10]Ibid.

[11]Ibid., p. 44

as there were . . . sitting around a little hole in the ground . . . it just naturally followed that something would happen" (15). Of course, in the strictest sense, the bullring does not fit Campbell's specifications for a world navel. Despite Mexico's general elevation which causes Lois to have altitude sickness, the bullring itself is actually the inversion of an elevated spot, deep like a "wooden bowl" (9), ultimately providing the drain, the link to the core of the earth and its energies. There is no tree, only that giant Pepsi bottle, and there is no water, although McKee feels the potential for such is there (15). There is one hero, along with 40,000 potential heroes. Like all bullfighters, Morris's matador enacts a "parable of life" with "allegorical elements" (31, 32). Dr. Lehmann revels in its special properties, for here at the bullring "he saw it clearer . . . than anywhere else . . . A transformation . . . the commonplace miracle of everyday life" (75). In short, the mythic properties and their transcendent potentials are abundant.

Wright Morris uses two interesting allusions to describe and clarify what happens in the bullring world navel. On one occasion, he describes the young bullfighter as having "his eyes wide with the wine of astonishment" (114), and on a later occasion he describes the "astonished" (199) look of the bull who is just then piecing together what has happened to him. Morris suggests here Psalms 60:3 — "Thou has shewed thy people hard things: thou has made us to drink the wine of astonishment."[12] The bullring, then, is the world navel, the mythic location where difficult lessons are forced upon all true participants, and many times the enlightenment is amazing. The second allusion Morris makes is to T.S. Elliot's "Burnt Norton" (1943) and the poem's "still point" idea.[13] In the bullring, Morris notes, the matador bravely stands fast as the bull circles, "creating a vortex, a still point where he stood alone with himself" (111). Some pages later Morris abstracts that image into the partly psychological realm to describe "words wheeling around the still point, the dance, the way the bull wheeled around the bullfighter, the way the mind wheeled around the still point on the sand . . . "(193). The most obvious use of Elliot comes in the same section just noted: "The bull could understand movement but not its absence, the man could understand both movement and its absence, and in controlling this impulse to move, the still point, he dominated the bull. Except for the still point there would be no dance" (192). The still point of the bullring is synonymous with the sanded navel, the world navel, and all are part of the mythic locality. T.S. Elliot, Joseph Campbell, and Wright Morris see this mythic location as one that

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[12] *The Oxford Annotated Bible: Revised Standard Version*, Eds. Herbert G. May and Bruce M. Metzger (New York: Oxford University Press, 1962).

[13] See lines 64-71 and 77-80 of the poem. Also. J.C. Wilson traces the "still point" images in "Wright Morris and the Search for the 'Still Point'," in *Prairie Schooner* 49 (Summer 1975), 154-63.

produces, as the Psalmist observed, new awareness and understanding, sans time and place in the usual sense, for time, including past and future, converge for an ultimate experience in human understanding and transformation. The bullring — the world navel, the still point — is the place for the true hero to be shown reality, the place to experience the astonishment of understanding.

The bullring, at one level the Minotaur's labyrinth, is the novel's central mythic location, but there are others that qualify, at least to one degree or another, as mythic location. These include Boyd's sandpit, as well as his world of rainbarrels and clapboard houses (103); Paula Kahler's YMCA room with its "eternal moment" (118-20); the summer sleeping porch of Lois's earlier years (180-82); and Scanlon's Lone Tree community hotel (217-24). In its own way, each of these places has special properties that contribute to a symbolic meaning, even though it is not presented in a sufficiently elaborate form to qualify as a still point for the novel as a whole, as does the bullring.

Ideally the message of *The Field of Vision* provides for the reader such a moment of new understanding. The message grows out of the labyrinth that Wright Morris has constructed. After intricately weaving the story together from the differing perspectives of his main characters, Morris allows the reader to follow threads — unifying mythic themes — through the maze of the novel to the heart of his ideas. The myth of the Minotaur pursued in his labyrinth sheds light on the message, just as the use of mythic location in general allows readers the opportunity to see the novel's meaning growing organically from the central energy of the work. By using these mythic elements, Wright Morris has brought light to illuminate the labyrinth of his book. As readers step back from Morris's milky way, out of which came *The Field of Vision*, they can only admire his evolving and assembling of myth.

POPULATION CHANGE IN THE CHATTAHOOCHEE-FLINT REGION OF GEORGIA

*by Dick G. Winchell**

Many rural areas of the United States have experienced renewed growth during the past decade, following years of population loss or stagnation. Studies of this growth have focussed on County population data and leave the impression that this growth is evenly distributed within rural areas. Detailed analysis of Bureau of Census information can provide a clearer picture of the patterns of population change in rural areas. This study examines population change in the Chattahoochee-Flint (Chatt-Flint) region of Northwest Georgia which includes Carroll, Coweta, Heard, Meriwether and Troup counties (Figure 1). The prupose of this study is to identify patterns of population change within the Chatt-Flint region, emphasizing changes of population in and around cities and towns of the region.

The Bureau of Census provides population data for a variety of census units. The units selected for use in this study include: counties; incorporated cities and Census Designated Places (CDPs); and Census County Divisiosn (CCDs). County population is self-explanatory. Incorporated cities are municipal units incorporated under state laws, while CDPs are closely settled population centers without corporate limits. The census identifies incorporated cities and CDPs as urbanized areas if their population is greater than 1,000.[1] Although the use of this terminology for many of the smaller communities within the study area may be stretching the limits of urbanized areas, this census definition will be utilized.

Georgia is one of twenty states to use CCDs. CCDs are areas that have been designated by the Census Bureau working with state and local officials. They include all urbanized areas within a county and the surrounding rural lands for which those urbanized areas serve as trade centers.[2] The use of CCD data makes possible a detailed analysis of population change within counties, although direct comparison with earlier census data (i.e., before 1970) is not possible. In addition to the 1980 CCD data, however, the 1980 Census Reports do provide an estimate of subtracting the population of the city or CDP from the CCD, the changes in the surrounding rural areas can be determined. This population will be termed CCD rural portion.

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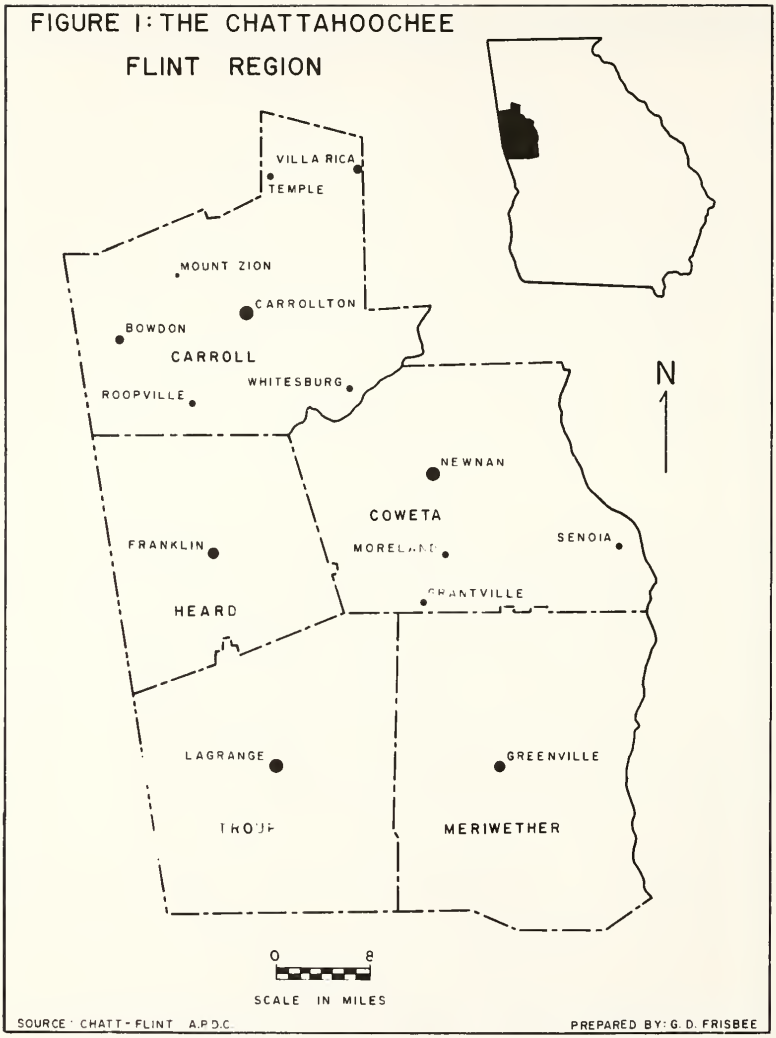
[1]Bureau of Census, U.S. Census of Population, 1980, *Number of Inhabitants: Georgia*, Final Report PC80-1-A12, Government Printing Office, Washington, 1982, p. A-2.

[2]Bureau of Census, U.S. Census of Population, 1980, *Number of Inhabitants: Georgia*, Final Report PC80-1-A-12, Government Printing Office, Washington, 1982, p. A-4.



County Population Change

The counties within the study area had an average growth rate of 6.8 percent from 1960 to 1970 and 17.9 percent from 1970 to 1980 (Table 1). Carroll County had the highest and most persistant growth rate at over twenty-four percent in each decade. Although Coweta County and Heard County had slower rates of growth from 1960 to 1970, both had growth rates exceeding twenty percent between 1970 and 1980. Population change showed a dramatic turnaround in Meriwether and Troup Counties, both of which lost population between 1960 and 1970 but gained approximately

ten percent from 1970 to 1980. The rapid and continued growth of Carroll County, followed by Coweta and Heard Counties, may reflect, in part the expansion of Atlanta and its associated urban development.

TABLE 1

Population Change for Chattahoochee-Flint Counties, 1960-1980

	1960	1970	% Change from 1960	1980	% Change from 1970
Carroll County	36,451	45,404	24.6	56,346	24.1
Coweta County	28,893	32,310	11.8	39,268	21.5
Heard County	5,333	5,354	0.4	6,520	21.8
Meriwether County	19,756	19,461	(1.5)	21,229	9.1
Troup County	47,189	44,466	(5.8)	50,003	12.4
Total	137,622	146,995	6.8*	173,366	17.9*

Percent change for the total population.

SOURCE: Bureau of Census, U.S. Census of Population, 1980, ***Number of Inhabitants: Georgia,*** *Final Report PC80-1-A12, Government Printing Ofc., Washington, 1982, Table 4.*

Population Change in Urbanized Areas

Fourteen incorporated cities and census designated places are located in the Chatt-Flint study area which meet the census definition of an urbanized area. The average growth rate for these urbanized areas was 5.5 percent from 1960 to 1970 and only 3.7 percent from 1970 to 1980 (Table 2). These averages are less than County growth already described.

The urbanized areas of Carrollton, Mt. Zion, Whitesburg, Franklin and Greenville were the group having the most rapid growth rates between 1960 and 1970, each with growth rates exceeding twenty percent. The urbanized areas of Grantville, Newnan and LaGrange actually declined in population during this period.

For the decade from 1970 to 1980 only Mt. Zion and Temple experienced rapid population increases at rates exceeding seventy percent, but these large percentage increases no doubt reflect their small initial populations. Most urbanized areas during this decade experienced no growth or only slight growth. Villa Rica lost population during this period, declining 11.7 percent, as did Grantville, Moreland, Senoia and Franklin, each of which experienced a slight decline of less than two percent. Urbanized areas within the study area essentially stopped growing at a time when county populations were rapidly expanding.

TABLE 2

Population Change For Chatt-Flint Urbanized Areas, 1960-80

	1960	1970	% Change from 1960	1980	% Change from 1970
Carroll County					
Bowdon	1,548	1,753	13.2	1,743	0.6
Carrollton	10,973	13,520	23.2	14,078	4.1
Mt. Zion	211	264	25.1	445	68.6
Roopville	203	221	8.9	229	3.6
Temple	788	864	9.6	1,520	75.9
Villa Rica	3,301	3,837	16.2	3,389	(11.7)
Whitesburg	366	720	96.7	775	7.6
Coweta County					
Grantville	1,158	1,128	(2.6)	1,110	(1.6)
Moreland	329	363	10.3	358	(1.4)
Newnan	12,169	11,205	(7.9)	11,449	2.2
Senoia	782	910	16.4	900	(1.1)
Heard County					
Franklin	603	749	24.2	711	(5.1)
Meriwether County					
Greenville	726	1,085	49.4	1,213	11.8
Troup County					
LaGrange	23,632	23,301	(1.4)	24,204	3.9
Total	56,789	59,920	5.5*	62,124	3.7*

**Percent change for the total urbanized area population.*

SOURCE: Bureau of Census, U.S. Census of Population, 1980, ***Number of Inhabitants: Georgia,*** *Final Report PC80-1-A12, Government Printing Ofc., Washington, 1982, Table 4.*

Population Change in CCDs

The CCD populations in the study area had an average growth of twenty percent from 1970 to 1980 (Table 3). Only the Grantville Division lost population, while major city areas (Carrollton, Newnan and LaGrange) all increased at more than twenty percent.

Change in population has varied within the study area for cities, counties and CCD's. Perhaps the most useful data is the CCD rural portion, which identifies the population in the rural areas immediately adjoining the urbanized areas (Table 4). These CCD rural portions have grown rapidly between 1970 and 1980, with a total growth rate of 38.2 percent. All but four CCD rural portions (Bowdon, Roopville, Grantville and Greenville) experienced rates of population growth greater than twenty-five percent.

TABLE 3

Population Change for Chatt-Flint Census County Divisions, 1970-80

	1970	1980	% Change
Carroll County	7,180	7,948	
Bowdon Division	7,180	7,948	10.7
Carrollton Division	23,004	28,672	24.6
Mt. Zion Division	2,786	4,068	46.0
Roopville Division	1,676	1,690	0.8
Roopville Division	1,676	1,690	0.8
Temple Division	2,590	3,891	50.2
Villa Rica Division	6,410	7,449	16.2
Whitesburg Division	1,758	2,075	18.0
Coweta County			
Grantville Division	2,273	2,207	(2.9)
Moreland Division	1,452	1,847	27.2
Newnan Division	24,845	30,504	22.8
Senoia Divison	3,740	4,710	25.9
Heard County			
Franklin Division	1,582	2,198	38.9
Meriwether County			
Greenville Division	2,556	2,829	10.7
Troup County			
LaGrange Division	31,810	36,307	14.1
Total	113,662	136,395	20.0*

**Percent change for the total CCD population*

SOURCE: Bureau of Census, U.S. Census of Population, 1980, *Number of Inhabitants: Georgia,* Final Report PC80-1-A12, Government Printing Ofc., Washington, 1982, Table 4.

TABLE 4

Population Change for Rural Portion of CCD's

	1970	1980	% Change
Carroll County			
Bowdon	5,427	6,205	14.3
Carrollton	9,484	14,594	53.9
Mt. Zion	2,522	3,623	43.7
Roopville	1,455	1,461	0.4
Temple	1,726	2,371	37.4
Villa Rica	2,573	4,060	57.8
Whitesburg	1,038	1,300	25.2

Coweta County			
Grantville	1,145	1,097	(4.2)
Moreland	1,089	1,489	36.7
Newnan	13,640	19,055	39.7
Senoia	2,830	3,810	34.6
Heard County			
Franklin	833	1,487	78.5
Meriwether County			
Greenville	1,471	1,616	9.9
Troup County			
LaGrange	8,509	12,103	42.2
Total Rural Area Population	53,742	74,271	38.2*

**Percent change for total rural section of CCD*

SOURCE: Bureau of Census, U.S. Census of Population, 1980, *Number of Inhabitants: Georgia,* Final Report PC80-1-A12, Government Printing Ofc., Washington, 1982, Table 4.

Comparison of urbanized area growth with that of the CCD rural portion demonstrates that the most rapid growth within the region is clearly occuring in the adjoining rural areas. CCD rural portion population has increased at almost forty percent, while urbanized area populations with the exception of Mt. Zion and Temple have increased only slowly or, in some cases, lost population.

The total new growth within the CCDs between 1970 and 1980 was not divided equally among rural and urban areas. Growth in the urbanized areas accounted for only 13.2 percent of all new growth in the CCDs, while the growth of the rural portion accounted for 86.8 percent of the total CCD population change (Table 5). All the rural areas except Roopville and Temple grew at a faster rate than the urbanized areas. Those rural areas surrounding the larger urbanized areas (Carrollton, Newnan, and LaGrange) showed the greatest proportion of CCD rural growth compared to urban growth. Here, the amounts of growth attributable to CCD rural portion were 90.1 percent, 96.0 percent, and 79.9 percent of the total, respectively. In addition, CCD rural growth rates exceeded 90 percent of the total CCD growth in the smaller urbanized areas of Bowdon, Whitesburg, Moreland, Senoia and Franklin.

Conclusion

This study has identified a more precise pattern of population growth in the rural areas outside the large metropolitan areas of Georgia. Than new growth is occuring most rapidly in rural, unincorporated portions of the study area and not within urbanized areas in a phenomenon which has

TABLE 5

Comparison of Population Change Rates for Incorporated Cities and Census County Divisions, 1970-1980

	Percent Change in Urbanized Area	Urbanized Area Percent of CCD Change	Percent Change in Rural AReas	Rural Percent of CCD Changes
Carroll County				
Bowdon	0.6	(1.3)	14.3	101.3
Carrollton	4.1	9.8	53.9	90.2
Mt. Zion	68.6	14.1	43.7	85.9
Roopville	3.6	57.1	0.4	42.9
Temple	75.9	50.4	37.4	49.6
Villa Rica	(11.7)	43.2	57.8	56.9
Whitesburg	7.6	5.8	25.2	94.2
Coweta County				
Grantville	(1.6)	27.3	(4.2)	72.7
Moreland	(1.4)	(1.3)	36.7	101.3
Newnan	2.2	4.0	39.7	96.0
Senoia	(1.1)	1.0	34.6	101.0
Heard County				
Franklin	(5.1)	6.2	78.5	106.2
Meriwether County				
Greenville	(11.8)	46.9	9.9	53.1
Troup County				
LaGrange	3.9	20.1	42.2	79.9
Total		38.2		86.8

SOURCE: Bureau of Census, U.S. Census of Population, 1980, *Number of Inhabitants: Georgia,* Final Report PC80-1-A12, Government Pringing Ofc., Washington, 1982, Table 4.

received little attention by planners and demographers who usually concentrate on either rural, urban, or suburban fringes of metropolitan areas. The growth of the rural portions surrounding smaller urbanized areas may be attributable to the inability of those cities to expand their boundaries through annexation, to the preferences of local residents for a more rural life-style, or to fewer restrictions on building and development in these areas. Additional research is needed to identify the reasons for this concentration of growth in unincorporated areas and to evaluate the impact of such growth upon the region.

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MIND AS HOLOGRAPHIC PROCESS: PSYCHIC DREAMS EXPLAINED

*by David Ryback**

Telepathy as Holographic Transmission

According to Karl Pribram the best model for the brain as a frequency analyzer is the storage of frequency information on photographic film as is done in holography.[1] A hologram is different from a conventional photograph in that a hologram contains all the information about the visual picture on all parts of the film. A conventional photograph portrays different parts of the picture on correspondingly different parts of the film.

Of paramount importance here is a clear understanding of the holographic process. The following explanation by Pribram serves to provide an excellent overview.

> Implemented in the early 1960's, the hologram is an engineering device based on a mathematical invention by Dennis Gabor, who wanted to improve the resolution of electron microscopy. For this purpose, he developed a new technique of storing on film what was not the intensity of reflected light or transmitted light, but actually the square of the intensity and the relationship of a particular beam with its neighbors. It is called the complex conjugate of the intensity. If I drop a pebble into a pond, ripples emanate out from the place where the pebble was dropped. If I drop two pebbles, two sets of ripples form and these ripples interfere with each other. If I throw in a whole handful, there are many such ripples, and the pond is perturbed in a complex way that appears quite irregular. If I take a movie of someone throwing pebbles into a pond, and then play the movie backwards, I would find that I could reconstruct from this set of ripples the location and the actual image of the pebbles as they entered the water.[2]

You may need a computer to help you in this reconstruction, but by analyzing the movie, an exact replication of all the pebbles and the exact distances among them can be recreated. The intersecting ripples will look like a blurry meshing of lines and curves. These are known as interference waves. In order to see the image of the pebbles entering the water, the information in the interference waves will be decoded and represented through some conversion process.

The main points to remember are, first, that since the interference pattern in spread out over the entire surface of the pond, any portion of the pond surface will give us the necessary information and, second, that the

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[1]Karl H. Pribram, "The Holographic Hypothesis of Brain Function." In S. Grof (Ed.) *Ancient Wisdom and Modern Science*. Albany, NY: SUNY, 1984, 167-179.

[2]Ibid, pp. 169-170.

movie gives us information on all events occurring in all parts of that pond at the moment the film was taken.

Point one can be described by referring to the information on the film as being distributive, and point two by referring to the fact that a three-dimensional account of events is captured on a two-dimensional film.

This second point can be seen more clearly if you imagine that at the moment the pebbles were tossed in the water, a frightened fish lurched away.

The waves created by the fish's movement also contribute to the interference wave pattern on the film. And if one fish, why not two or three or 83? So you can see that quite a complex 3-dimensional picture can be obtained from a 2-dimensional film.

If the brain does function according to the holographic principles, as Pribram suggests, then **what significance does this have to the psychic dream process**? There are actually two points of significance here. The first has to do with the nature of brain-to-brain transmission and the second has to do with the potential of the brain to process information heretofore considered unavailable to it.

First, if we accept the brain as functioning according to a frequency modality, then it is reasonable to accept that it has the potential to function as a radio transmitter-receiver. This would account for mental telepathy except that the brain differs from an actual radio signal being transmitted in that the brain lacks a powerful transmitter to beam its electromagnetic signals.

Carl Jung, who wrote in highly mystical terms, explained psychic dreams as occurring through the process of synchronicity, a form of coincidence shared by individuals with close psychic ties (such as family members). But that doesn't help us understand the process at the brain level. And it is that more concrete, scientific level that we are interested in explaining here. We want to know: What actually happens in the brain?

Even Sigmund Freud, author of the most respected tome on dream interpretation, suggested the possibility of a stage of man's development prior to the attainment of linguistic abilities when he was able to communicate with his fellow man through some sort of telepathic brain-to-brain process in the absence of language. As language developed, mused Freud, this telepathic ability became overridden by speech. But it may be the means by which telepathic and other psychic processes take place. Certainly this psychic ability is not part of our culture at this point, therefore making it difficult for those having such experiences to find acceptance.

This conceptualization of modules in the brain which Eccles[3] compares to radio transmitter-receiver units is not mere idle speculation. In a Stanford University laboratory, B. Bridgeman[4], among others, has been able to simulate the precise operation of such modules on computer. The electrical currents produced by the firing of these modules in the brain are the depolarizations and hyperpolarizations (more of the latter than the former) that occur among the synaptic connections among hundreds of neurons firing in a symphonic patterned array, according to Pibram.[5] Eccles refers to these as microstructures, while yet another researcher (Szentagothai) has referred to them as integrated microcircuits of electronics, only vastly more complicated. That these modules function as described here, whether they are called microcircuits or microstructures, has been demonstrated in the research laboratory by Rall[6] and Shepherd.[7]

Not only has Pribram[8] made a convincing argument for such periodic activity in the neuronal microstructure of the brain, but so have others such as Campbell and Robson[9] who demonstrated how the eye analyzed the periodic fluctuations of the intensity of light over space.

Precognition as Intra-Cerebral Holographic Reflection

So far we have explained the telepathic process in which brain-to-brain transmission and reception has been considered. This helps us to understand the process of psychic dreams of a telepathic nature. What about the process of precognitive dreams? To explore this we will need to change our focus for a while from brain neurophysiology to the physics of time and space.

I'd like to begin this part of the discussion by quoting directly from Fritjof Capra's book, *The Tao of Physics.*

> According to relativity theory, space is not three-dimensional and time is not a separate entity. Both are intimately connected and form a four-dimensional continuum, 'space-time'. In relativity theory, therefore, we can never talk about space without talking about time and vice versa. Furthermore, there is no universal flow of time as in the Newtonian model... All measurements involving space and time thus lose their absolute

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[3]K. R. Popper & J. C. Eccles, *The Self and Its Brain* (NY: Springer-Verlag, 1977).

[4]B. Bridgeman, "Metacontrast and Lateral Inhibition", *Psychological Review*, 78 (1971), 528-539.

[5]Karl H. Pribram, *Languages of the Brain,* (Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole, 1977, 2nd ed.).

[6]W. Rall, "Dendritic Neuron Theory and Dendrodentritic Synapses in a Simple Cortical System", in *The Neurosciences Second Study Program* (NY: Rockfeller, 1970), 552-565.

[7]G. W. Shepherd, *The Synaptic Organization of the Brain: An Introduction* (NY: Oxford University Press, 1974).

[8]Karl H. Pribram, *Languages of the Brain*, (Englewood, Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1971, 1st ed.), Chapter 8.

[9]F. W. Campbell and J. G. Robson, "Application of Fourier Analysis to the Visibility of Gratings" *Journal of Psysiology*, 197 (1968), 551-566.

> significance. In relativity theory, the Newtonian concept of an absolute space as the stage of physical phenomena is abandoned and so is the concept of an absolute time. Both space and time become merely elements of the language a particular observer uses for his description of the phenomena.[10]

Now what is so interesting about this relativistic view of time is that it gives birth to the possibility of viewing time as travelling in either a forward or backward direction.

Recall the holographic movie of the toss of pebbles into the pond from the First Section. Recall two other things as well: one, that an individual sophisticated in such matters (or a computer) could read the "movie" of squiggly lines and curves and read backwards in time to tell what had preceded the event recorded in the "movie", i.e., how many pebbles, their size and distance from one another.

Two, recall that even small fragments of the "picture" would provide most of the information, although in a fuzzy manner. Hence, if at some microscopic level, some particles traveled backwards in time in some way originating from a holographic point of information (such as a frame from the movie), then this information would be carried back in time if there were a brain to recognize it at that earlier point in time.

A brain is in a state most receptive to this kind of information when there are fewest competing stimuli, when the possessor of the brain is asleep.

During sleep sensory input is minimal. The eyes are shut, the surrounding noise level is usually low, and the body is moving very little.

At the cerebral cortex of the brain there is some activity, but less than in the waking state. Some of this activity results in dreaming. I suggest two sources of stimulation for dreams. One is the random firing of neurons in the brain in the absence of external stimulation. Just as the muscles of the body twitch occasionally during sleep, so will neurons and micro-circuits in the brain discharge spontaneously from time to time.

The second source of stimulation for dreams comes from indications of strong drive from various parts of the body during sleep. If you're very hungry when you go to sleep, stomach contractions may be sufficiently active to enter the brain's subconscious until a dream brings it into consciousness. If you go to bed angry at your boss, the remaining tension in your back and arms may similarly provide sufficient stimulation to enter the subconscious until a dream brings it into consciousness. Ordinarily, these are two areas of stimulation for dream content.

Rarely, however, a third source of stimulation may come into play. And that is a holographic reflection traveling backwards in time. Since there are

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[10]Fritjof Capra, *The Tao of Physics*, (Boulder, CO: Shambhala, 1975).

a good number of neurons and microcircuits in the brain discharging spontaneously these microcircuits are unusually receptive to an informational energy at that point of disposition to discharge. It is as if the hammer of the gun is cocked and the trigger becomes extremely sensitive, at times sufficiently sensitive to pick up minute bits of information from holographic reflection travelling backwards in time.

Now a very important question is: What is the source of this holographic reflection? What is its point of origin? If a person dreams of her husband's sudden death 2,000 miles away a week before it happens, must the informational energy make that 2,000 mile trip? In geographical distance as well as time? How is it possible that such a small, fragile piece of information can survive such a long trip?

The amazing answer is that the informational energy in question never makes that geographical trip. It only makes the trip backwards in time, but not in space. How is that possible? The answer is as simple as it has been evasive up to this time.

The source of the informational energy is within the very brain that receives it.

The woman learns of her husband's death at point B (let us say March 20, for example), when it actually occurs. This is such a blow to her that it results in a great deal of emotional upset and nervous energy. Her mind or brain is overwhelmed and she may even go into shock.

At this point the excess amount of nervous activity in her brain may provide for an occasion for some information of a holographic nature leaping backwards in time. It is as if the micro-circuits are overloaded (at the exact moment she learns of his death) and it is at this moment that a holographic reflection may take place.

The information travels backwards in time until point A (March 6) when the woman experiences a dream of her husband's death exactly as it will occur two weeks from the night of the precognitive dream.

Hence the holographic information travels backwards in time (2 weeks) but no distance in space (it remains within the context of her brain, possibly in the very same micro-circuits).

That would help me understand how it came about that I had a very sad dream about my own father (about whom I very rarely dream) a few days before I learned of his death. As well as I could recall, the feeling emanating from my memory of the dream was extremely similar to my emotional reaction upon hearing the sad news for the first time.

At the moment of learning of my father's death a holographic reflection turned information back in time, providing sufficient stimulation to affect a dream a few days earlier. Those bits of information travelling backwards

in time may have remained stationary in space, perhaps within a particular micro-circuit of neurons, or configuration of micro-circuits.

The implication here is that the particular micro-circuit or neuronal configuration in question has the capability of receiving information from future or past events in unlimited fashion. Even more dramatic and incredible is the corollary that any neuronal configuration of micro-circuits within the brain has that potential. This is not a novel consideration. In the 17th century, the man who discovered integral calculus, Leibnitz, proposed such a function in what he referred to as "monads", which were elemental aspects of nature which contained incorporated information about all of the universe. Like the tiny human cell, which incorporates genetic information about the whole body of which it is part within its even tinier nucleus, the monad contains within it the characteristic information of the universe of which it is part. This concept is an integral part of the holographic model.

The micro-circuit or configuration of micro-circuits is monad-like in that it is the smallest configuration of neurons/microcircuits which can still contain the information comprising a percept, a complex stimulation of the brain leading to a recognized, meaningful mental experience of awareness. Any less information than that might provide a feeling or an unclear hunch about something, but not a recognized percept.

On occasion, a "perceptual monad" or cerebral configuration, sufficiently organized to provide meaningful informtion can span the barriers of time by capturing a holographic reflection travelling backwards in time, within its own structure. Although this precognitive process is often characterized as mystical, that is only because there is no understanding of the underlying process. There is no currently accepted model of precognition within the culture of science. As Pribram puts it:

> If we get ESP or paranormal phenomena — or nuclear phenomena in physics — it simply means that we are reading out of some other dimension at that time. In our ordinary way, we can't understand that.[11]

The explanation of psychic dreams in terms of the holographic process is decidedly a pioneering effort at this point. It is, in fact, in violoation of both our common sense and our conventional understanding of the laws of physics. But it stretches our imagination to allow us to explore the unfamiliar aspects of our world and to widen the scope of possibilities of our understanding.

As Professor Charles Tart of the University of California remarked on a nationally broadcast documentary on ESP,

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[11]Marilyn Ferguson, "Karl Pribram's Changing Reality", *Human Behavior*, (May, 1978), 31.

The majority of the scientific community doesn't believe in the existence of psychic phenomena. . . The exciting thing about Psi is that, while it appears to violate some of our known physical laws. . . it. . . will mean we'll have a greatly expanded and more effective understanding of the ordinary physical universe. That's the challenge. That's what really is exciting.[12]

[12]Charles Tart, interviewed on NOVA, PBS, January 17, 1984.

SYMBOLS AS 'DELIRIOUS PHENOMENA': A SHORT PHENOMENOLOGY OF SYMBOL USE

*By Marc J. LaFountain**

We dwell in what is currently referred to as the "information/communication age." We know that in these times information and knowledge are intimately related to freedom (opportunity, possibility) and to power. We also know we are symbol users, and that symbols are central to information, knowledge, communication and interaction. In our typical, routine assumptions about ourselves as symbol users, however, we tend to forget or gloss over a variety of problems and paradoxes inherent in their use. What follows is a description/inventory of some essential features of symbols in the life-world.[1]

On the surface, most of us realize certain problems with symbols. For instance, all of us have experienced the difficulty of creating or choosing the appropriate symbols to express ourselves, whether they be words for a sentence, names for an organization, or a gift for another. And likewise, we have all encountered the problems of interpreting the meanings of another's expressions. And especially in an information-based society, where "scientific" studies of others' attitudes and feelings abound, many of us have grappled with the problem of "objectively" understanding other people. For example, what do the Nielson Ratings actually say? What can statistics really say about emotions? What does one product's being "significantly more effective" than another product really mean?

Beyond the surface lies another realm of more obscure and perhaps even more profound features of symbols and their use. In fact, one could say the surface problems mentioned above are constituted, in one way or another, by the inventory that follows. There is no particular significance to the order of the presentation. Discussed are 1) the tendency of symbols simultaneously to express and hide phenomena, 2) an inherent distortion

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[1] The "life-world" (Lebenswelt) is a central concept in phenomenology, which concerns itself with describing and understanding the features and life of consciousness, the lived-body, and human existence in general. In the natural attitude of everyday life the following are taken for granted without question:

a.) the corporeal existence of others,

b.) that these bodies are endowed with consciousness essentially similar to my own,

c.) that the things in the outer world included in my environs and that of others are the same for us and have fundamentally the same meanings,

d.) that I can enter into interrelationships and reciprocal actions with others,

e.) that I can make myself understood to them,

f.) that a stratified social and cultural world is historically pregiven as a frame of reference for me and others, indeed in a manner as taken for granted as the "natural world", and

g.) that therefore the situation in which I find myself at any moment is only to a small extent purely created by me. (*The Structure of the Life-World*, A. Schutz and T. Luckmann, Evanston: Northwestern University Press, 1973, p.5).

or "falseness" in symbolic communication, 3) the essential incompleteness of symbolic constructions, 4) the tendency of symbols to "turn into each other" in what Salvador Dali referred to as the "delirium of interpretation", and 5) a tendency of symbolic systems to "de-center" subjectivity by dispersing it throughout the structure of that system.

First, symbols possess the unique and paradoxical feature of both expressing and hiding that which they seek to display. (The latter does not refer to intentional efforts to conceal.) Symbols are intended to be vessels that transport or threads that string together meanings, and by so doing, give us a glimpse of the things they represent. They are taken to be translucent, even in their most complex forms. They are also opaque. Aspects of the phenomenon symbolized seep through the symbol, as if substances being transferred across a semi-permeable membrane. Yet to look back through the symbol to the phenomenon itself is to find that one surface of the window obscures one's vision.

Hiding and expressing exist in a dialectical relationship. For instance, in reading a literary text, such as *Hamlet*, or a social text (i.e., treating social reality as a text to be interpreted), such as the VietNam War, one perceives the existence of an array of meanings that become clearer with each reading. Beholding one's national flag summons a sense of community, nationalism, and belonging, but it also shadows immoralities and atrocities. Literary, art, and social criticism all acknowledge that texts are constituted by various levels of meaning. They take as their task establishing the basic and most abstract system which, through a series of transformations (whose workings often are not at all obvious), generates the text as it presents itself.

It is often said that reality and life possess an "essential" ambiguity and unintelligibility. The latter stem from a realization that existence is synonymous with expression, which sediments layer upon layer of signification, leaving consciousness/ perception always open to a variety of interpretations of different layers of meaning. Nevertheless, and quite to the contrary, lived-experience, in its very breathing and moving, is poignantly and vividly clear. It is our processing of lived-experience that introduces haze and indeterminancy. Too often we confuse the clarity of the mystery of life with the obfuscations of thought.

Closely related to the dialectic of concealing and revealing is the "false" nature of symbols. In that symbols are designed to embody experiences or meanings, they are treated as incarnations of invisible, intangible realities. Ironically though, those same experiences and meanings, as they are lived out by individuals in the moments of their lives, are actually the incarnations. Symbols are merely representations of them. The gap between what is lived and what symbolizes it necessarily engenders a falseness. Rather than representations, symbols are misrepresentations.

For instance, when I tell you that I feel "joy" or that "I love you", the symbol and the experience can not be treated as isomorphic. And it is important to realize this is not simply a matter of the fact that each of us possesses a unique set of sedimented experiences. Symbols in a way may be the flesh of the invisble, but they inhabit a realm quite different from what is lived.

In sociology, symbolic interaction theory suggests that interaction is a process in which individuals display themselves to each other as symbols. Of course, as we encounter each other face-to-face we concretely experience each others' bodies, movements, utterances, etc., and we tend to take these as the "reality" of the situation. While in the natural attitude we treat appearances as synonymous with reality, symbolic interactionists point out such appearances are in fact the external style of inner life. The late Erving Goffman made a career of illuminating the "con-artist" in each of us. He exposed not just the side of us that incessantly intends, consciously or unconsciously, to influence others, but more basically, that in using symbols we are moving between private, internal, and intersubjective, external realities, and in so doing, our communications are essentially "false". It is not as if we have a choice to be otherwise - as symbol users it is our fate. Is it any wonder misunderstanding is perhaps a (the?) dominant feature of our interactions, or that being misunderstood is one of our greatest fears? When we observe another's symbols, what are we really seeing?

Ever so intimately related to shrouding/exposing and to falseness, symbolic constructions exhibit an "essential incompleteness". An insight into this notion was suggested by Martin Heidegger, who noted that being is time, i.e., whoever is, is in the process of becoming. All efforts at capturing "what is" in symbolic form must necessarily also be incomplete. Furthermore, Gabriel Marcel noted that our status as beings is grounded in a "mystery". By this he meant that any efforts we make at understanding ourselves always remain problematic, for we are caught up in what we want to understand, we are dependent upon and are "in" what we want to know. This being so, we cannot place ourselves outside or before ourselves to gain a vantage point for viewing ourselves.

This is dramatically illustrated in a relatively new perspective in sociology known as ethnomethodology. Among other things, ethnomethodologists point out that each particular aspect of a situation is dependent upon its context for meaning, but the context that gives meaning to the particular is, in part, formulated by that particular. Indeed, this is a circular motion, but it is more. It is also an awareness that what we know presupposes a more fundamental stratum of knowing already there. As we strive symbolically to represent what is already there, it inevitably recedes, and the symbol catches only a glimpse or moment of that thing.

There is always an "inexhaustible more", an "infinity of the unsaid". A set of symbols never fully manifests a world. Rather, it makes visible its own incompleteness.

As instances of the above we may consider our common use of such phrases as "et cetera" or "you know what I mean". The et cetera principle openly acknowledges there is more, and that it would be futile to continue to add more, for not only would it not be practical, it would never be done! In fact, ethnomethodologists have noted an interesting feature about rules, formal or informal, linguistic or social. While on the one hand rules are necessary, on the other, there can be no rules for all situations, and any efforts to provide them tend only to magnify the senselessness of the situation. Consider the notion of "law and order" and its incessant generation of loopholes and additional deviance. Or consider a simple statement we make to each other, "How are you feeling today"? Aside from our typical responses, which are as much an effort not to answer the question as they are one to answer it, think how long it would really take to answer that question. Symbols are incorrigibly incomplete.

Thus far, we have seen in a variety of ways that symbols are not clearly defined, discrete phenomena that always correspond to an objective reality. Were we to continue to assume so, as is typical at the surface level referred to earlier, we would be haunted by the ideas of Freud and the images of Salvador Dali. It is on Dali that we focus now, particularly one of his major contributions to surrealism - - the paranoiac-critical method. Succinctly, this approach commences with a feature of paranoiac reality, the tendency to see multiple images ("delirious phenomena") in discrete images. Dali points out, however, that he is not mad, and that by developing the critical-paranoiac method as an experimental technique, one is able to enter a "delirium of interpretation" where one gains knowledge by interpreting/articulating "delirious phenomena". The latter are spontaneous, irrational associations of objects and meanings. The critical-paranoiac method subjects outer reality ("natural necessity") to the inner necessity (mental) experienced by the artist (viewer).

Surrealists generally stressed the inner representation of the image present in the mind. They turned objective reality inside out. While in our typical daily activities we do not do so intentionally, nevertheless we do frequently experience the delirium of interpretation and a variety of delirious phenomena. Symbols are delirious phenomena. They are objects that rather than yielding a single discrete image/interpretation, instead are delirious in that they often readily "turn into" other symbols. This is not just to say that symbols have different meanings. It is more. It is to recognize that a single symbol often becomes many things. The delirium of interpretation generated by delirious phenomena replaces the taken-for-granted-world-out-there-for everyone with spontaneous, irrational

associations of possibilities and variations at the level of the "lived imagination".

Symbols are delirious phenomena, thus they are not just objects whose meanings are open and transformable, but more basically, objects whose very natures are mutable. Of course, it is the mind's grasp of or interpretive (spontaneous, irrational) association of objects that contributes to the delirium (what Dali referred to as the 'paranoiac ability' of the author), but the fact remains it is the reality of the object that is mutable. The significant insight is that objective reality is not discrete and determinate, and that a certain frenzy inheres in the mind's use of symbols.

As instances we may contemplate the following: are skyscrapers Liberal Capitalism's monuments to its ego? its Towers of Babel? Are exercise and fitness television programs, where attractive young men and women (usually women) gyrate and sweat in revealling apparel, a true interest in fitness, and/or is it institutionalized eroticism? Are the water towers that everywhere dot the horizon functional objects, and/or are they unwanted intruders (as were the towering machines in H.G. Wells' "War of the Worlds") from the negative side of Industrialism, who, wherever they appear, bring with them the degredation of Nature? Or what of this interesting comment, heard over the solemn silence at the scene of a terrible automobile accident, where there were numerous onlookers, police, towing trucks and ambulances: "You know, everytime I'm in one of these situations, I feel those ambulances are vehicles ordered by Death to collect its offerings".

As a closing observation on symbols, we may consider an irony, thematized most clearly in an approach referred to as "semiotics (eg., writers such as Lacan, Derrida, Barthes, and Althusser). The irony that this perspective reveals is that that authors symbols and their meanings (i.e., subjectivity, consciousness) in the first place subsequently must search for the meanings it intended by looking through what it created so it can find them! The essence of the irony is the production of subjectivity and meaning by structure. By this is meant that consciousness or subjectivity, rather than being the source of meanings, is "de-centered" or diffused throughout a symbol (sign) system such that it is the structure that possesses the meanings. Writing and language are not simply a reproduction of an objective reality, but rather are the production of a new and different reality. Subjectivity then is not a predicating subjectivity, but rather is constituted by the signifying or structuring activity of the symbol system (i.e., structure). Subjectivity thus is no longer a center, and meaning lies outside of subjectivity. This "outside" continually produces what that subjectivity thinks it means.

This idea becomes clearer if we consider such notions as alienation, estrangement and meaninglessness, which have become prevalent

concepts in the past 100 years. At their core is the recognition that the complex system or structure of symbols and signs that is the world we inhabit is something we indeed created (and recreate individually in our daily lives), but it is also something that confronts us. We must search through it to find the meanings we identify as the realities of our lives. For example, many of us acknowledge money to be an important resource (as opposed to goal), but how do we determine our priorities if by not looking at what we have become and then deciding what we think we want to become? In becoming successful or accomplished, i.e., "arriving", we must often stop and ask, "what is the meaning of this? just where have I arrived"? What is the meaning of a planetary civilization that had developed the ability to obliterate itself? Do our identities lie inside us or somewhere out and around us? Do we read them from the text that is society, and like the meaning scattered through the pages of a novel, not ever quite certain of their sense until the pages have passed by? These are not simply dichotomus questions of whether or not society creates me or I it, but ones concerning the contingent and changing nature of who and what I am as I am dispersed in the "out-there" in which I participate. We, as subjects, are decentered, positioned in a text that has no certainty, only movement and continual revelation. Symbols are all around, taking their meaning from each other and from their contingent positioning, and we are in them.

What we have considered in this brief piece is the nature of symbols and their use. We have seen that beyond what we take for granted, symbols are indeed intriguing, often mysterious phenomena. But then again, this is perhaps true of anything once we pass beyond the shroud of the routine.

SUPPORT GROUPS FOR GRIEVING PERSONS

by Pick Conner*

Support groups for grieving persons are relatively new, but they are being organized all over the country. Many are local chapters of national organizations, like the four Atlanta area chapters of the Compassionate Friends, which has its national headquarters in Oak Park, Illinois. Some are simply local responses to a tragic event, which is also the way Compassionate Friends started.

A support group is a small group in which the members provide support to each other, usually in the face of a chronic or severe problem. The support groups referred to here will be even more specialized in definition. They are groups in which the members support, encourage, and assist each other in learning to deal effectively with their grief.

A distinction is made between "self-help" groups and support groups. "Self-help" groups (i.e. Alcoholics Anonymous or Parents Anonymous) have the primary purpose of trying to change the dysfunctional behavior of members. The support group's primary purpose is to provide support, encouragement, and assistance to each of its members in learning to cope with the problem or situation they all share.

Support groups have existed since the beginning of human history. The first support group was probably the tribe or clan in which members shared food and shelter, as well as everything else that belonged to the tribe. Later, individual families formed their own support units, providing those kinds of support not offered by the tribe or larger society. Natural support systems include families (both nuclear and extended), friends, and sometimes neighbors and co-workers. It is obvious that human beings could not exist without support, that support groups are part of what makes us a **human** society. As our society grows more and more complex, so does the need for support in our efforts to deal with this complexity. As our lives become more stressful, there is an increased need to find more successful ways to cope with the ever-increasing stress of our environment. It is in this context that people have begun to recognize the need for more support groups to help them deal with specific shared problems or needs.

What does a support group do? How does it help individuals to cope with the stress of a family member who is chronically or terminally ill? How does it help a person in his/her day-to-day functioning as the adult child of an aging parent? How does it help a person to face the loss of those who are dying or to recover from the loss of one who has died? There are

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some functions that most support groups have in common (i.e. they all do certain things). Members of a support group:

- validate each other's experience
- console and comfort each other
- support each other
- encourage each other by example of successful coping
- educate each other by sharing their individual experiences
- accept each other as fellow human beings with similar problems
- protect each other, sometimes, from well-meaning others who often inflict pain without realizing it.

There is considerable evidence that support groups also alleviate stress among members and that membership in a support group enables members to cope with greater stress that they otherwise might.

The information detailed herein will provide some idea about the need for support groups and how to go about organizing such groups. There are some basic, very simple guidelines for organizing such a group: (1) Members must share a common interest, problem, need, or life situation. This common interest does not have to be too narrowly defined at first, but it may have to be narrowed later. In this case, the common interest/problem is grief. (2) The group should grow out of an **individually expressed need**, expressed by a person with the problem. It is not enough for a social worker to recognize the need and start to organize a group. If the group is to be independent and continue to function on its own, it should originate with an individually felt need. (3) Decision-making is the group's function and not the function of the social worker. Any and all decisions should be made by the group — from the beginning. (4) Usually a social worker serves in a consulting function, not as a fully functioning member of the group. However, if the social worker also shares the common problem of the group members, he/she may become a full-fledged member of the group. The problem, then for the social worker is which hat to wear — consultant or group member.

Grief groups may be appropriate for working with any or all of the following:

- terminally ill persons, who need to grieve over their own impending death
- divorced persons — the loss of a marriage, of a valued role, and often, of children is sometimes overwhelming
- parents of a handicapped child — often accompanied by sense of loss, frustration, of dreams unfulfilled

- person who has lost a lover — loss of valued and needed relationship
- women who have given up a child for adoption — a loss which the person may not be able to understand or express.

All of these may be thought of as needing some help with their grieving, with understanding and expressing their feelings or loss. However, the primary concern here is with the grief of those who have lost a significant other (spouse, parent, close friend, or relative, etc.) and who, for whatever reason, do not feel they have resolved (or are resolving) their grief satisfactorily.

Grief occurs when human beings suffer loss. As a general rule, the greater the loss, the more intense the grief. When a human being with whom we are involved dies, we **must** grieve over our loss. The closer the relationship, the more intense our grief.

Some people fail to grieve appropriately or to grieve adequately when they suffer a significant loss, such as the death of a parent, or a close friend, or a child. For whatever reason — perhaps they feel it is not consistent with their religious beliefs, or their role in the family (as husband, father, wife, mother), or other professional role (as minister, doctor, nurse, funeral director), they do not achieve the therapeutic effects of grief. Because it is natural for people to grieve and because grieving is a natural process, a healthy grief relieves much of the stress felt by survivors.

The high mortality rate and the high incidence of illness, both physical and emotional, occuring among recently widowed persons demonstrate the costs of unresolved grief. Unrelieved stress has been shown to be related to the onset of a wide variety of illnesses and disabilities.

"High grief" deaths are generally more stressful than "low-grief" deaths. Sudden deaths, death by accident or violence, or the death of a young person by any means, are usually "high grief" deaths. The family members are seldom prepared and often have to deal with their previous denial that such a possibility existed. The shock of the death is often so traumatic that some survivors have not worked past the first stage in the grief process. This has an effect on their behavior at home and at work, and often a negative effect on their health. Those persons who have lost a spouse, a parent, or a child need to grieve in proportion to the extend their lives were involved with the deceased person.

The grieving process is a healing process which takes time to complete, even when it is allowed to progress naturally. If the process is deliberately avoided, blocked or prolonged, the time involved may be increased and a deliberate and continuous effort may be required to complete the process. The person who experiences a loss will grieve, **must** grieve, regardless of how long it takes. In a natural healthy grieving process, the tasks of grieving are accomplished with the help of others in the supportive

network. When this process is interfered with, the grieving person may ignore the needs of others or may hurt others, especially those who are dependent on him/her, such as small children. He/she may neglect others who are in his/her care or may neglect him/herself. It is for this reason that grief support groups may be helpful.

Some of the benefits members can expect to derive from belonging to such groups a1. The group provides "permission to grieve"; says it's O.K. to have feelings, no matter how intense, that grieving is natural, a human response to the pain or loss.

2. The interaction with other group members will help to expose myths and fears about death that interfere with healthy, normal grieving. Once the myths are exposed, once the fears are brought out, the individual can work on them and overcome them with the support of the group.

3. Any group, to be effective, must provide a supportive, non-threatening atmosphere in which the individual can feel free to talk about emotions and problems of a private, personal nature if he/she wishes. Members of the group will provide support for each other in trying to work through their grief feelings. The group leader can encourage this by assuring members of confidentiality, and encouraging them to respect each other's feelings.

4. The social worker will encourage members to involve persons of their own supportive networks (family, close friends, pastors, counselors, others) in working on their problems. The group leader will himself serve as a temporary member of that support network, providing the transition from group to network for those who need it. Where appropriate and necessary, the group leader will help individual members strengthen their supportive networks and involve significant others in working through the grief process.

After the group of five-ten persons has been selected, the first group sesson will be scheduled at the convenience of the members (evenings are usually more convenient). The process might be as follows:

Step One - Introductions establish trust (exercise), explanation of the group process (ground rules), contracting, and plans for future meetings.

Step Two - First working group meeting (not more than one week after the initial meeting). Each person tells what grief work he/she has to do, or in some way gives some of the history of his/her loss. Discussion centers on feelings, understanding the loss, etc. The social worker uses support, reassurance, insight, and encourages members to participate in offering support, insights, and reassurance to fellow members.

Step Three - Regular group meetings, weekly for 8-10 weeks, 2 hour sessions.

Step Four - Termination. Depending on the wishes of the group, this may be a social event, planned by group members and away from the regular meeting place (possibly a member's home).

Step Five - Individual sessions may be scheduled with those members seen as needing further help. In such sessions, referrals may be made, plans for continuing counseling, or plans for continued self-help.

It is important that the group leader have a clear understanding of the basic concerns of grief work, and that he/she has worked on his/her own reactions to grief and loss and his/her own fears of death which may be brought to the surface during the group process. The group leader in this process does not function in the role of expert, but as an enabler, supporter, encourager, and when the occasion demands it, taskmaster. He/she uses skills in empathy, clarification, reassurance, and occasionally confrontation. He/she is accepting, non-judgmental, and supportive. In addition, to be an effective group leader, he/she must have a working knowledge of group dynamics.

For persons who are already experienced in therapy/counseling/casework with individuals, but not in groups, additional reading and perhaps training in group dynamics/group work will be needed. For the person who does not have experience in working with grief and loss, or who still has a significant loss (such as a divorce) to work through, additional training will probably be needed. Ideally, such training will take place in a group setting by participating in a grief group or by participating in a seminar/study group with professional colleagues (peers). In any case, the group should be structured loosely enough to permit free expression of feelings, and should also include work with a competent group leader.

It is anticipated that most of the persons with multiple problems or major psychological problems other than grief will be screened out through the group process. However, other stresses may develop during the course of the group's life which cause the participant additional problems and which may require specialized professional help. Or, a group member may have other problems not specifically associated with the grieving process which he/she may uncover during grief work, and which are of a more long-term nature. Since the group leader is usually not engaged in individual therapy, he/she should not attempt to deal with this person on an individual basis, but should refer him/her to a competent professional counselor/therapist/clinical social worker.

For this reason, the social group worker should maintain a file of such professionals, with appropriate information, such as fees, office hours, specialty or orientation, location, and credentials. Such information may

be provided to the client when making such a referral, but only if the client requests the referral. **In no case** should the client be referred to the group leader's own private practice. To do so would be clearly unethical.

Many people are not prepared for the strength of their grief or the depth of the emotions that need expression during the grief process. Support from others who are experiencing (or have experienced) grief themselves may be most effective during this very stressful period. Social workers and others can organize support groups to assist grieving persons in coping with the loss of a significant other, but such group leaders need special training or experience in grief work and group work. Support groups have been shown to be effective in helping people work through grief and in relieving the stress of the grief process.

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UNDERSTANDING THE STRUCTURE OF HUMAN EXPERIENCE: CONTRASTING APPROACHES

*by J. J. Barrell**

Studies of human experience can include a variety of target areas. Such areas can range from thoughts and feelings to the perception of others, the world, etc. Experiential and phenomenological approaches attempt to understand the structures of experiences across this broad range. In the following work, we shall first explore the structure of human experience in general and then contrast both these approaches by way of example. The example which has been selected for study is active anxiety.

The Structure of Experience

Our lives consist of a steady flow of experiences, one after the other. Let us attempt to slow this flow for the purpose of studying the structure of a single experience. Structure suggests that a single human experience includes "parts" which are to be distinguished from physical parts of a machine or body. Rather the term here refers to psychological aspects of an experience. These parts are embedded in the experience. Although these "parts" are inseparable from an experience, they can however, be separable in the sense that they could be found in other experiences.

Let us take the example of desire as a "part" of experience. To want is to want something. However, although this desire always aims toward a target, it is also separable from that target. For example, if I am thirsty and reach for a glass of water, it is clear to me that my desire (urge) "belongs to me" and the water is "out there" in the world. I want what I do not have. Although desire requires a target, it is also separable from that target because it has its own meaning and does not require any specific target. I must want something, but it could be anything. Desire does not depend on any specific target and can be found in many different experiences with different targets. Desire is, therefore, inseparable from a target, but separable from a specific target.

Is there a quantitative dimension in direct experience? Certainly most of us have had the experience of disappointment related to a previous desire and expectation of success. Upon reflection, we can verify how one experience can influence the other. For example, the higher our desire and expectation for a successful outcome, the greater our later disappointment should we not achieve it. Although this quantitative relationship is not given in any single experience, it is obviously present when reflecting on the relationship of both experiences.

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Even in the case of a single experience, quantity can be implied, For example, the experience of desire is directly related to intensity. In fact, the meaning of desire refers to intensity. However, it is a desire within a certain range of significance. For example, if a goal loses some of its significance to us, we may still **like** to have it but no longer **want** it. In contrast, should significance increase, a **want** could become a **need**. All experiences, such as "I must," "I should," "I need," "I want," "I like" can be understood on an intensity continuum of significance rather than being treated separately. It is certainly true that there is a qualitative distinction between such experiences as "I have to" and "I want to;" however, this distinction can also be treated quantitatively. Therefore, the "parts" of experience can be treated both quantitatively and qualitatively.

Phenomenological and Experiential Approaches

At this point, we can suggest that a given experience is made up of separable and necessary "parts" that are (1) embedded in the structure of that experience and are (2) quantifiable at least in an ordinal sense. Next, experiential and phenomenological approaches for the purpose of discovery of these necessary "parts" will be contrasted.

A study of **active anxiety** will provide a basis for this contrast. First of all, description is important for both phenomenological and experiential approaches. The following is an example of a description of active anxiety:

> I feel tense. A fluttering in my stomach appears. I tell myself to calm down. I picture myself failing — people laughing at me. My hands feel clammy. Can I do it? I don't know.

Using these kinds of descriptions and a phenomenological approach, we would wish to create an accurate picture of the experience, to describe what it is like to be **in** the experience of active anxiety.[4] Such an approach focuses on capturing the aesthetic, the richness of experience. The account is to include the necessary "parts" of an experience, but their embeddedness in experience argues against separating them out of their context. The following is an example of a phenomenological analysis of the above description. It is meant to go from the single instance to the general description.

> A threat to my way of being emerges on the horizon of my experience. The threat appears to demand a response. I feel I must respond or be overwhelmed by this threat. Although my world appears fragmented, part of this fragmentation includes bits and pieces of possibilities. Possible alternative actions emerge. The correct choice of action is uncertain. This uncertainty brings body tension — a shaky, unsteady tension. There is neither a surrendering to the situation nor the awareness of a single clear course of action.

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In contrast, the aim of an experiential approach is to discover and clarify the necessary and sufficient "parts" of a specific experience[1,3]. With an experiential approach, the emphasis is on clarification. It is not that accuracy or faithfulness to the "lived" experience is not important; rather, this approach suggests that clarification must go beyond accuracy to a level that is practical, It must give one the ability to increase the incidence of positive experiences and decrease those that are negative. This is why clarification is the aim. The following is a hypothetical listing of the necessary "parts" of active anxiety. Similar to the phenomenological paragraph, these listed "parts" must be implicit or explicit in the single instance; and are intended to capture the general experience of active anxiety, that is, to apply to all experiences of active anxiety. In other words, they represent an attempt to discover the common core of this experience. The "I" statements are not meant to refer to only a single person but to facilitate a process whereby each person tests the conclusions within his or her own experiences.

1. I feel that I must act (could be an internal preparation, attitude, etc.) to avoid a negative consequence.

2. I feel uncertain about the appropriate action to avoid this negative consequence.

* As an aside, if I feel certain about the only thing that can be done now or feel certain that I cannot do anything to affect the outcome, no anxiety results. In the case of passive anxiety, the uncertainty is directed toward consequences rather than one's action. An example would be watching your favorite football team on a fourth down on the one yard line with a chance to win or lose on the last play of the game.

These two "parts" represent an attempt to discover necessary and sufficient conditions of active anxiety, that is to suggest if only these two "parts" are experienced then active anxiety will naturally occur. Conversely, the removal of one or both of these "parts" abolishes the anxiety. Each of these "parts" is necessary and together sufficient to consciously or unconsciously create the experiential structure of active anxiety. Although active anxiety which includes the generalizable description, autonomic responses, etc., is more than the sum of these two "parts", the aim here is simply to discover the most fundamental "parts" required to elicit the experience. This simplicity and clarity is particularly useful for those persons interested in (1) taking responsibility for transforming their own lives, and (2) facilitating an integration of the personal growth process with the social sciences.

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Summary

Each human experience has a structure. This structure includes "parts" which make up the whole of that experience. Some of these "parts" represent the necessary conditions for that particular experience to occur. These necessary "parts" can also be found in other experiences. In this way, each of these "parts" can be independent of as well as dependent upon an experience as a whole. For example, the two different experiences of envy and jealousy both possess the following necessary "part": the perception or imagination of someone having an experience that I desire[2]. This "part" is independent of a specific experience but depends on some experience for its existence.

The structure of any given experience can include quantitative as well as qualitative dimensions. In fact, the quantitative can be found in such direct experiences as that of wanting something. Wanting or desire involves intensity which can be represented as a measurable dimension. Therefore, the relationship of "parts" within experience can be stated quantitatively.

Finally, there are two possible aims for understanding the structure of human experience: (1) a desire to discover an accurate picture of the experience, and (2) a desire to discover the necessary and sufficient conditions of that experience. Some phenomenologists stop at the first while an experiential approach includes both, with the emphasis on the second aim.

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ABSTRACTS OF MASTER'S THESES AND SPECIALIST IN EDUCATON PROJECTS

AN ANALYSIS OF THE RECREATIONAL READING PRACTICES OF FOURTH, FIFTH, AND SIXTH GRADE STUDENTS AT SWAIN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Carolyn S. Allen
(EdS, Middle Grades Education and Reading, August, 1983)

This study was designed to evaluate the voluntary, recreational reading practices of students in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades at W. L. Swain Elementary School in Gordon County, Georgia and was completed in conjunction with a literature program (Project L.I.T.) being conducted in the school. Student reading participation was analyzed based on sex, ownership or non-ownership of video games, and by fiction or non-fiction book selections by the participants.

The subjects of this study were students in grades four through six at W. L. Swain Elementary School during the school year 1982-83. Two hundred sixty-four students participated in the study.

Weekly record sheets of recreational reading were completed by the students to determine fiction or non-fiction book choices, student attitudes toward books, and number of book completions. At the end of the study, students and parents completed questionnaires. Student questionnaires provided the following information: a) student estimate of frequency of reading, b) reasons for book choices, c) ownership or non-ownership of video games, and d) student's favorite author and book. Parent questionnaires provided insight as to their general feeling toward the reading practices for their children.

Data from the students' weekly record sheets were compiled. An analysis was computed by the West Georgia computer center for each hypothesis.

Hypothesis one stated that there would be no significant difference in the number of fiction and non-fiction books chosen by the students when compared with the actual book collection of the school library (43% fiction and 57% non-fiction). The factor of chance was ruled out by a high rate of check-out of fiction books. Null hypothesis one was rejected with a chi square value of $x^2=24.80$, d.f. (1), at the .05 level of significance.

Hypothesis two stated that there would be no significant difference in the number of books read by students who did or did not own a video game. The computed t ratios for the fiction and non-fiction groups were

not significantly different from chance and it appears that ownership or non-ownership of video games does not influence the check-out rate of books in either category. Null hypothesis two was not rejected.

Hypothesis three stated that there would be no significant difference in the number of books read by boys and the number read by girls. Computed t ratios for the fiction and non-fiction categories indicated that girls did read significantly more than boys. Boys read significantly more non-fiction books while girls tended to choose more fiction books.

It appears that sex was a determining factor in the process of selection of books, as well as the frequency of reading books. The ownership or non-ownership of video games had no influence on the number of books being read. On the whole, more fiction books are being chosen from the school library which contains 43% fiction and 57% non-fiction books.

A STUDY OF THE CORRESPONDENCE OF COLOR SELECTION AND MYERS-BRIGGS TYPE INDICATOR RESULTS

Robert Glenn Allisat
(MA, Psychology, December, 1983)

This thesis attempted to determine whether or not color selection is capable of reflecting psychological typology as proposed by Jung. Subjects selected two out of a number of colors (the colors used were taken from source materials which phemenologically paralleled Jung's theoretical constructs). Each color had a predicted typological value (for example: blue = introverted sensation; red = extraverted feeling; etc.). The type predicted by color selection was compared to results on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) a personality inventory widely held to measure Jung's typology. No correspondence was observed between selection among the colors in this study and results on the MBTI. Further investigation was suggested.

A STUDY OF TEACHER LEVEL OF CERTIFICATION AND ITS EFFECT ON STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT ON THE GEORGIA BASIC SKILLS TEST

Carolyn P. Amburn
(EdS, Secondary Education, December, 1983)

The purpose of this study was to determine whether significant relationships exist between student's scores in the reported areas of total score, concept, component, and problem solving on the Georgia Basic Skills Mathematics Test and the following four factors: level and area of the teacher's certification, experience of the teacher, mathematics background of the student, and sex of the student. One school system in

the Atlanta metropolitan area provided information by completing a questionnaire designed for the study. Four four-way analyses of variance were used to interpret the data. Two factors were significantly related to the student's score on the mathematics section of the BST: teacher level and area of certification (p=.014) and mathematics background of the student (p=.001).

The teacher level and area of certification and the mathematics background of the student area significant factors on student scores on the Georgia Basic Skills Test. The mathematics courses which a student elects at the high school level and the teacher's level and area (mathematics) of certification appear to relate positively to student scores. The sex of the student and the teaching experience of the teacher do not seem to relate significantly to scores on the mathematics portion of the BST.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF FIRST - GRADE REPEATERS AND FIRST - GRADE NON - REPEATERS

Mary Alice Ballard
(EdS, Early Childhood Education, August, 1983)

This study was designed to investigate promotion and retention of first-grade students by comparing the students in terms of mean scores on a reading readiness test and in terms of reading achievement levels, family background, and personal habits and attitudes to determine if there were any significant differences between first-grade repeaters and first-grade non-repeaters in relation to their academic and personal development. The students in the study were from 17 elementary schools in a large metropolitan area school system. The student sample consisted of 316 non-repeaters and 56 repeaters.

The **t** test for determining the significance of the difference between two independent means was used to test the difference in the mean scores on the reading readiness test of the two groups. A two-way analysis of variance was used to locate mean differences on test scores when divided by sex. Chi Square was used to test the remaining data which was in the form of frequency counts occurring in two or more mutually exclusive categories.

The results showed that there was a significant difference between the mean scores of repeaters versus non-repeaters in the areas of visual discrimination and relationships and on the classification factor. The study also showed that there was a significant difference between first-grade repeaters and first-grade non-repeaters on the measures of: exhibits self-confidence, uses good listening skills, completes work on time, and is quiet and well-behaved. All other variables were not significant at the .05 level.

LIGHT AND ELECTRON MICROSCOPIC OBSERVATIONS OF *IN VITRO* MAINTAINED NERVE-MUSCLE CELLS IN A CHEMICALLY DEFINED MEDIUM AND ON DEFINED SUBSTANCES

Arthur Chandler Beall (MS, Biology, March, 1984)

Primary cultures of dissociated chick 11-day embryonic pectoral muscle and 4-day embryonic spinal cord were established in a chemically defined medium and on defined substrates: polystyrene and solid fluorocarbons. This chemically defined serum-albumin free (SAF) medium consisted of 1:1 Ham's F-12 medium/Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium supplemented with 20 ug/ml bovine insulin, 17 ug/ml putrescine, and 5 ug/ml human transferrin. This SAF medium supported neuronal cultures for 2-3 weeks and differentiated muscle cultures for 4-7 days. Moderately-high density muscle cultures maintained in SAF medium containing 10^{-5} M arabinofuranosylcytosine (ara-C) produced low-density muscle cultures, virtually devoid of fibroblasts, which survived for 3-4 weeks. Four-day embryonic spinal cord neurons were plated on five day ara-C treated muscle cultures and maintained in SAF medium containing ara-C for 3-4 weeks. Transmission electron microscopic observation of nerve-muscle cocultures revealed primitive neuromuscular junctions comparable to those grown in undefined serum-supplemented media. The solid fluorocarbon-coated glass slides not only provided a suitable substratum for cellular adhesion, but also aided in the separation of epoxy embedded specimens from these glass slides to produce thin plastic wafers of the monolayer cultures.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE BACKGROUND VARIABLES OF BELOW-GRADE LEVEL READERS AND ON-GRADE LEVEL READERS IN THE SECOND GRADE

Alice Evelyn Black
(EdS, Early Childhood Education, December, 1983)

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship among certain factors of children's family backgrounds and their reading levels. These factors included whether or not parents read to their children, the amount of time spent reading to children, parents modeling reading behavior, parents' education levels, children's sex, the amount of time children spent reading independently, and parents' and/or children's memberships to book clubs or subscriptions to magazines.

The population for the study consisted of students attending a public elementary school, kindergarten through grade five, in a suburban community located in the northwestern portion of Georgia. The school was located in a middle-income, mainly white collar neighborhood. The

sampling consisted of 69 second grade students. Thirty-seven of the subjects were male and 32 of the subjects were female.

A questionnaire was sent to the parents of each second grade student in May of 1983. The survey form was devised for the sole use of this study and was written in an objective format. The parents were asked to respond to questions which related to their child's reading background at home. The Chi square statistical analysis was used to test each hypothesis. The level of significance for rejection of the null hypotheses was .05.

The results of the data from this study have shown that there was a relationship between some factors of children's family background and their reading levels. Those factors which appeared to affect the children's reading levels included the parents'educational level, the parents' membership to book clubs or subscriptions to magazines, whether or not children enjoyed reading, the frequency of children's readig at home, and the amount of tiem spent by children reading at home. The children's reading level did not appear to be affected by their sex, the frequency of the parents' reading, the children's subscription to a magazine or membership to book clubs, the amount of time parents spent each week reading to their child, or the frequency with which parents read to their child weekly.

PROJECT LIT: THE EFFECTS OF STUDENTS' READING ATTITUDES AND READING ACHIEVEMENT OF A SCHOOL-WIDE PROJECT TO PROMOTE READING AND LITERATURE

Sharon Blakenship
(EdS, Reading, August, 1983)

This study was undertaken to ascertain the effectiveness of a special reading/literature program called Project LIT which was conducted at W. L. Swain Elementary School in Gordon County during the school term 1982-1983. The problem of the study was to determine the effect the program had on students' reading attitude and reading achievement. Data from a total of 287 students from grades two through six were analyzed. This data consisted of pretest and posttest scores on *A Reading Attitude Inventory for Elementary School Pupils* by Lewis and pretest and posttest scores on the reading test of the *Metropolitan Achievement Tests*. The reading/literature program called Project LIT consisted of nine months of special school-wide reading activities which were designed to present reading as an enjoyable activity which should be indulged in for the pleasure derived from it. Students were encouraged to read independently and share what they read in various ways. They participated in TV video workshops, puppetry, dramatics, Balloon Launch Day, Character Dress-up Day, and listened to visiting authors. They were treated to special

reading centers that were arranged in various locations in the library. The results of this study, tested at the .05 level of significance, indicated that a small but significant difference existed between posttest and pretest reading attitude inventory scores. There was also a significant difference between scores of the posttest reading achievement test and pretest scores. These findings indicate that a program of varied and interesting reading activities will significantly improve reading attitude and achievement of students.

A STUDY OF THE EFFECTS OF THE TITLE I MATHEMATICS PROGRAM ON THE ACADEMIC PROGRESS AND REMEDIATION OF STUDENTS AT THE EASTBROOK MIDDLE SCHOOL DRUING THE 1980-81 SCHOOL YEAR

Priscilla Sample Bonner
(EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1983)

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to determine if there was a significant difference between pretest and posttest mean achievement scores in mathematics with respect to sixth- and seventh-grade Title I Students at Eastbrook Middle School during the 1980-81 school year.

Methods and Procedures

This study was conducted at the Eastbrook Middle School in Whitfield County. There were 26 sixth grade students and 7 seventh grade students served in the Title I mathematics program. The program was conducted by one professionally certified teacher and one teacher aide.

During the fall of the 1980-81 school year, students were selected for the program on the basis of criteria developed at the system level. The SRA Achievement Series, levels C and D, was administered to the students as a pretest. Using data from CRT results and pretest scores, individual student needs were assessed and programs of instruction were designed to meet the needs of each student. The actual instruction time covered in seven months of the school term. The same level SRA Achievement test was administered in the spring as a posttest to measure the level of achievement or student progress in mathematics. The **t** test was the method used to test the null hypothesis to determine whether there was a significant difference in the pretest and posttest mean scores for each group.

Results

Findings of the study were:

1. There was a significant difference between the pretest and posttest mean scores for sixth graders beyond the .01 level.

2. There was a significant difference between th pretest and posttest mean scores for seventh graders beyond the .05 level.

Conclusions

Based on analysis of the data it was concluded that:

1. The academic progress and remediation of sixth grade students in the Title I mathematics program was positively affected by instruction in the program.

2. The academic progress and remediation of seventh grade students in the Title I mathematics program was positively affected by instruction in the program.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE ACHIEVEMENT IN SUBSEQUENT MATHEMATICS BETWEEN STUDENTS WHO STUDIED ALGEBRA I IN THE EIGHTH GRADE AND THOSE WHO STUDIED ALGEBRA I IN THE NINTH GRADE

Barbara A. Bookhardt
(EdS, Secondary Education, December, 1983)

The point of this study was to determine whether there is a difference in achievement in the subsequent mathematics courses taken by those students having the first year of algebra in the eighth grade as compared to the achievement in subsequent mathematics courses taken by those students having the first year of algebra in the ninth grade.

It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between students who took Algebra I in the eighth grade and those who took Algebra I in the ninth grade with respect to their subsequent achievement in (a) Geometry A, (b) Geometry B, (c) Geometry C, (d) Algebra II A, (e) Algebra II B, (f) Algebra II C, (g) Trigonometry, (h) Advanced Mathematics Concepts, and (i) Analytical Geometry. It was further hypothesized that there would be no difference between girls and boys with respect to their subsequent achievement in the above courses and that there would be no interaction between the grade in which Algebra I was taken and the sex of the student with respect to their subsequent achievement in the above courses. To test these null hypotheses, the 28 ninth graders who had Algebra I in the eighth grade and the 146 tenth graders who had Algebra I in the ninth grade, both groups of whom were enrolled in Geometry A for fall quarter of 1979, were chosen as the subjects.

The data collected were the final numerical averages recorded for the students at the end of each quarter for each subsequent mathematics course taken. These data determined the measure of achievement in each of the subsequent mathematics courses. A multi-factor analysis of variance was used to analyze the numerical data from each of the subsequent mathematics courses using the sex of the student and the grade in which Algebra I was taken as independent variances.

The findings revealed that the students who took Algebra I in the eighth grade scored significantly higher in each subsequent mathematics course than did those students who took Algebra I in the ninth grade. The findings also revealed that females scored significantly better than did males except in Geometry C.

Therefore, based on the findings, the conclusion of the study was that those students chosen to take Algebra I in the eighth grade scored significantly higher in subsequent mathematics courses than did those students who took Algebra I in the ninth grade.

It is recommended that further studies be done with a much larger group of students and more than one high school.

USING BIBLIOTHERAPY AS AN AID IN IMPROVING SELF-CONCEPT IN THIRD GRADERS

Snow B. Brehm

(EdS, Early Childhood Education, December, 1983)

The purpose of the study was to determine if there was a significant difference between the mean score of third grade students receiving bibliography and the mean score of third grade students not receiving bibliotherapy as measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale.

The population for the study consisted of approximately 250 students in kindergarten through sixth grade. The school has been identified as a middle- to lower-income school located in a rural area of northwest Georgia. The subjects used in the study were a group of third grade students who varied in academic ability and accomplishments. The students were divided into two heterogenous classes with 25 students in each class. Both classes were administered the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale as a pretest and posttest.

The treatment group completed a six-weeks bibliotherapy program during which the teacher read and led discussions concerning selected books and stories which would help the students attain a better insight into themselves and their environment. The control group continued in their regularly scheduled activities.

Analysis of covariance was used to test the null hypothesis. The null hypothesis was rejected at the .001 level of significance. The results of the study showed that there was a significant difference between th mean score of pupils receiving bibliotherapy and the mean score of pupils not receiving bibliography as measured by the Piers-Harril Self Concept Scale.

THE IDENTIFICATION OF INSTRUMENTS USED FOR SOCIAL/EMOTIONAL ASSESSMENT OF BEHAVIORALLY DISORDERED CHILDREN IN SELECTED RURAL SCHOOLS IN WEST GEORGIA AND THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENTS

Betty Boone Buice
(EdS, Special Education, August, 1983)

This study was conducted as a survey of special education teachers of behaviorally disordered students in the West Georgia CESA area. An original questionnaire identified the social/emotional assessment instruments used by special education teachers to evaluate students who had been referred to them for suspected behavior disorders. The efficacy of the assessment tools that were identified was also examined. Statistics compiled from the eighty schools included in the study revealed that the frequency of students identified as behaviorally disordered was 1.48% of the total enrollment. Of the eighty teachers surveyed, 73.75% (59 teachers) returned the questionnaires with information concerning tests used to identify students with behavior disorders. Tables depict the specific behavior checklists and rating scales most widely used in primary, middle, and secondary schools, and their effectiveness. The criteria for identifying behaviorally disordered students were cited by the special education teachers who responded to the questionnaires.

DIRECT INVOLVEMENT IN THE CREATIVE WRITING PROCESS: KEYS TO BECOMING AN EFFECTIVE MODEL FOR THE PRIMARY CLASSROOM

Patricia W. Carter
(EdS, Early Childhood Education, June, 1983)

This study was concerned with the processes involved in becomming an effective model for the teaching of creative writing skills to first graders at Maple Street School, Carrollton, Georgia.

To accomplish this goal, recent related literature was reviewed to provide a background of understanding about the developmental stages necessary for this creative skill and to provide information concerning the philosophies of teaching creative writing. The research shown depicted those methods deemed most valuable in working toward that end.

Research of the related literature on creative writing noted that to be an effective model for creative writing, the teacher must have experienced those stages involved in the production of creative writing from conception to finished product. To fulfill that requirement of experience this study presented six original short stories written by this author. These stories

afforded the author the opportunity to participate in the creative writing process and, in turn, share that gained knowledge with primary students.

THE EFFECTS OF PEER EVALUATION ON ENGLISH COMPOSITION FOR EIGHTH-GRADE GIFTED STUDENTS

Ellis E. Couch, III
(EdS, Middle Grades Education, December, 1983)

The purpose of this study was to compare the effects of teacher evaluation and peer evaluation on writing achievement and apprehension toward writing. It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the effect of peer evaluation and that of teacher evaluation on either the student's writing achievement or apprehension toward writing. A secondary hypothesis stated that there would be no significant difference between the sexes with respect to writing achievement or apprehension. It was further hypothesized that there would be no significant interaction between the sex of the student and the type of evaluation with respect to writing achievement or apprehension.

The experimental population of thirty-three gifted eighth-grade students was randomly scheduled by the computer into two writing classes. During a twelve-week period, both groups were presented the same course content; however, teacher evaluation of student papers was used in the control group while peer evaluation was also used in the experimental group.

Two writing samples were taken at the beginning of the experimental period and two at the end. These were assessed by trained raters using the Diederich Rating Scale. The Miller and Daly Apprehension Survey was given at the end of the experimental period to both groups, and the results were compared to determine the effects of the two methods on student apprehension. The data from the four writing samples and the apprehension survey were analyzed at the West Georgia Computer Center. For rejection of the null hypothesis, the .05 confidence level was used. Based on the analysis of the data, none of the null hypotheses were rejected at the .05 confidence level.

Conclusions drawn from the analysis of the writing sample data indicate that peer evaluation is at least as effective as teacher evaluation as a method of teaching writing to eighth-grade gifted students. The data from the Miller and Daly Survey indicated that the peer evaluation group did not differ significantly from the teacher evaluation group with respect to apprehension toward writing; therefore, neither can be said to be superior in reducing writing apprehension.

A STUDY OF THE EFFECTS OF THE EARLY CHILDHOOD GRADUATE EDUCATION PROGRAM AT WEST GEORGIA COLLEGE ON GRADUATES IN THE TEACHING PROFESSION

Victoria R. Cribb
(EdS, Early Childhood Education, August, 1983)

The purpose of this study was to determine whether the Graduate Education Program of the Early Childhood Education Department at West Georgia College had positive effects on graduates in the teaching profession. The study involved 112 graduates who earned a Master of Education degree in Early Childhood Education and 10 graduates who earned the degree of Specialist in Education in Early Childhood Education at West Georgia College from January 1981 through March 1983. These graduates and their supervisors completed and returned questionnaires which had been designed by the Early Childhood Education Department.

The hypothesis stated in Chapter I was supported by the positive results obtained from the completed questionnaires. These results were presented by using raw scores, percentages, and mean scores. From a comparative analysis of the data, the study indicated that the Graduate Education Program of the Early Childhood Education Department had positive effects on graduates in the teaching profession.

A PLAN FOR THE UTILIZATION OF VOLUNTEERS AS PARAPROFESSIONALS AT W. L. SWAIN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL IN GORDON COUNTY, GEORGIA

Carol Davis
(EdS, Early Childhood Education, August, 1983)

The media has severely criticized educators for graduating students who did not learn skills that should have been mastered in public schools. It is obvious, that in many cases, students' individual needs have not been met. For a variety of reasons, classroom teachers can no longer adequately meet each child's needs without having additional help. Due to the economy, funds have been drastically reduced and the additional trained help such as aides, that teachers once had at their disposal, are no longer available. There is an emphasis, at the state level, for implementing individualized instruction and remediation in order to increase academic achievement.

Funds in Gordon County, Georgia have been drastically reduced, thus an alternative to increasing the number of paid professionals needs to be considered. The purpose of this study was to develop a plan for the utilization of volunteers as paraprofessionals at W. L. Swain Elementary School in Gordon County, Georgia.

A questionnaire was developed to be distributed among the faculty at W. L. Swain Elementary School in order to ascertain the teachers' needs. A handbook was designed for teachers in order to familiarize them with effective methods of recruiting and instructing volunteers and in order to familiarize them with methods of giving recognition to volunteers who work in the program.

Another handbook was designed for the volunteer. The purpose of this handbook was to allay any fears a volunteer might have in regard to qualifications for the job. The handbook also attempted to answer many of the questions that a volunteer might ask.

A STUDY TO DETERMINE THE RELATIONSHIP OF THE CURRICULUM OPINIONS HELD BY YOUNG ADULTS CONCERNING HANDWRITING INSTRUCTION TO EACH OF THE VARIABLES OF SEX, EDUCATIONAL LEVEL AND OCCUPATION

Faye Davis
(EdS, Early Childhood Education, August, 1983)

Handwriting is one of the most important means of communication. Since it is a tool that is useful throughout life, perhaps more emphasis should be placed on handwriting instruction in the schools. The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship of the curriculum opinions held by young adults concerning handwriting instruction in the elementary school to each of the variables of sex, educational level and occupation.

The population for this study was comprised of graduates of Chattooga County High School in Summerville, Georgia. The sample included 200 young adults who graduated in June, 1973. A questionnaire using a Likert Scale was devised and mailed with a letter explaining the project. The participants were asked to circle the responses which most accurately reflected their opinions and to return the questionnaire in a pre-addressed, stamped envelope which had been included. There were 89 questionnaires returned.

Results of the study indicated that:

1. There was no significant difference between young male and female adults and their curriculum opinions concerning handwriting,

2. There were no significant differences among the educational levels of young adults and their curriculum opinions concerning handwriting instruction, and

3. There were no significant differences among the occupations of young adults and their curriculum opinions concerning handwriting instruction.

Results also indicated that the respondents were of the opinion that formal handwriting programs should be included in the elementary school curriculum and that both cursive and manuscript should be taught, with an emphasis placed on cursive writing.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF READING ACHIEVEMENT OF FIFTH AND SIXTH GRADE STUDENTS USING THE REMEDIAL READING PROGRAM IN ADDITION TO THE BASAL READING PROGRAM AND THOSE USING ONLY THE BASAL READING PROGRAM

Phyllis H. Davidson
(EdS, Reading, June, 1983)

A study was conducted to determine the effectiveness of total reading achievement as a result of students receiving supportive instruction in a reading resource room. Forty fifth and sixth grade students from West Haralson Elementary School were selected to participate in the study. The experimental group and control group consisted of subjects who had scored a minimum of one grade below grade level on the California Reading Achievement Test. Both groups were placed in Level 12 of the basal reading program according to their scores on the Hold Basal Reading Placement Test. Twenty subjects in the experimental group received assistance in reading instruction in a reading resource room in addition to their regular reading instruction. Twenty subjects in the control group received instruction in their regular reading class only.

The California Reading Achievement Test was administered before and after a period of fifteen weeks to both groups, and served as pretests and posttests. The Analysis of Covariance was the procedure used to ascertain any significant statistical difference between the total reading achievement of the two groups. According to the statistical computation used to evaluate the null hypothesis, there was no significant difference in total reading achievement at the .05 level of significance. Therefore, the following null hypothesis was not rejected:

There will be no significant difference between the posttest scores of the experimental group and the posttest scores of the control group (after adjustment for pretest differences).

A CORRELATION STUDY OF GRADE POINT AVERAGES, NATIONAL TEACHER EXAMINATIONS SCORES, AND GEORGIA TEACHER CERTIFICATION TEST SCORES FOR UNDERGRADUATES AT WEST GEORGIA COLLEGE FROM NOVEMBER, 1980 THROUGH MAY, 1982

Janice Haynes Dixon
(EdS, Early Childhood Education, June, 1983)

The purpose of this study was to correlate the grade point averages and the scores of West Georgia College undergraduates on three instruments: the National Teacher Common Examination, the National Teacher Area Examination in Early Childhood Education and the Georgia Teacher Certification Test.

The hypothesis tested stated that there would be no significant correlation between the grade point averages and the scores of West Georgia College undergraduates who took the National Teacher Common Examination, the Georgia Teacher Examination in Early Childhood Education, and the Georgia Teacher Certification Test in Early Childhood Education. A four-variable correlation coefficient analysis statistical procedure was used in determining the correlation coefficients. All coefficients were statistically significant at the .001 level. The study was limited to the time period between November 1980 and May 1982.

The results of this study indicated that there is a correlation between each of the variables of National Teacher Common Examination score, National Teacher Examination in Early Childhood Education score, Georgia Teacher Certification Test score in Early Childhood Education, and grade point average. However, there was considerable variation in the coefficients of the variables, with those of the National Teacher Common Examination score and the Georgia Teacher Certification test score in Early Childhood Education being moderately high while the coefficient of the National Teacher Area Examination in Early Childhood Education was in the low (but significant) range. The null hypothesis was rejected in each case. It was concluded that the grade point average of a student can be employed in the prediction of his/her score on the National Teacher Common Examination, National Teacher Area Examination in Early Childhood Education and the Georgia Teacher Certification Test in Early Childhood Education.

The recommendation was made to replicate this study using new data and to correlate the scores on the Georgia Teacher Performance Assessment Instruments (TPAI) with the grade point average and scores on the Georgia Teacher Certification Test.

A HISTORIC STUDY OF GEORGIA HISTORY TEXTBOOKS

Kenneth Leroy Dodd
(EdS, Secondary Education, August, 1983)

This is a three part study of the Cherokee Indians in Georgia. The first part, consisting of chapters 2-13, is a history of the Cherokee Indians in Georgia. It begins with the earliest accounts of the Cherokee in the area of present day Georgia, and includes the profound changes wrought on Cherokee society by the steadily intensified contact with the white man's culture.

The tragedy of the Cherokee involvement in the Revolutionary War and their futile attempts at reconciliation with the whites through their costly involvement in the Creek Indian War of 1813 is discussed. This is followed by an account of the agitation by Georgia politians to have them removed from Georgia.

The history of the Cherokee in Georgia began to close with the discovery of gold and the election of President Andrew Jackson. The desperate struggle of the Cherokee to remain in Georgia is discussed along with the efforts of Georgia politicians to have them removed. The narrative includes several tragic scenes that occurred while the Cherokee were being removed from Georgia.

The second part of this study, consisting of chapter 14, is a survey of the manner in which the Cherokee Indians have been treated in Georgia history textbooks. Fifteen textbooks used from 1900 to 1977 were chosen. Each reference to the Cherokee is noted and compared to the historical record for accuracy and "Cracker Bias." Included is a chart (pp. 148-150) which indicates the number of paragraphs in each textbook that specific topics on Cherokee history are discussed.

The third part of the study, consisting of chapter 15, is the conclusion. In it are suggestions for improving Georgia history curriculum to help abolish the "Cracker Bias" against the Cherokee Indians.

AN ANALYSIS OF BASIC SKILLS TEST MATHEMATICS SCORES OF ATLANTA-AREA SCHOOLS WITH RESPECT TO PREPARATION MODELS AND OTHER SELECTED SCHOOL FACTORS

Dorothy Robison Fielder
(EdS, Secondary Education, August, 1983)

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to determine whether significant relationships exist between the school mean score on the Georgia Basic Skills Mathematics Test and the following six school factors: remediation

course model, educational certification of the teacher, school socioeconomic level, racial composition, size, and classification of the demographic area served by the school.

Procedures

Seventy-six of the 97 high schools in the Atlanta metropolitan area elected to provide information via questionnaires. Two three-way analyses of variance were used, with a .05 level of significance.

Results

Two school factors were significantly related to school mean mathematics score on the BST: remediation course model at .036 and classification of demographic area at .003.

Conclusions

Suburban schools seem to have little difficulty preparing mathematics students for the Georgia Basic Skills Test. The most effective models for remediation in all schools appear to involve individual or small group work. Other school factors do not seem to be significantly related to school's success on the mathematics portion of the BST.

THE EFFECTS OF A UNIT ON TEST-TAKING SKILLS ON READING COMPREHENSION SCORES OF EIGHTH-GRADE STUDENTS AT CARTERSVILLE MIDDLE SCHOOL

D. Virginia Garrison
(EdS, Middle Grades Education, December 1983)

This study was designed to determine the results of exposure to a unit relative to test-taking skills on reading comprehension scores of eighth-grade students.

Subjects for the study were eighth-grade students at Cartersville Middle School. The subjects were randomly selected from the entire eighth-grade population. The control group was composed of 31 students, and the experimental group was composed of 34 students.

The study was conducted over a 10-day period with the *Stanford Diagnostic Reading Test* administered as the pre- and post-tests. The mean gain scores were analyzed using t-tests for independent means.

The results indicated a significant difference at the .05 level for two of the groups compared. The mean gain of the total experimental group was significant when compared to the total control group, and the mean gain of the black experimental group was significant when compared to the white experimental group. The outcome of the analyses of the data resulted in the rejection of two of the five hypotheses.

Recommendations and implications of the study are discussed in Chapter V.

THE EFFECTS OF STUDENT TEAMS-ACHIEVEMENT DIVISIONS OF THE SELF-CONCEPT ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT, AND CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR OF BEHAVIORALLY DISORDERED JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

Dianne C. Green
(EdS, Special Education, December, 1983)

This study assessed the effects of Student Teams-Achievement Divisions (STAD) on the off-task behavior, self-concept, and mathematics achievement of behaviorally disordered junior high students in a junior high school in Peachtree City, Georgia. Twenty-one students were randomly placed in the control group (N=9) or the experimental group (N=12). Prior to treatment, baseline data for off-task behavior was charted for each student. The students also completed the Piers-Harris Childrens' Self-Concept Scale and the Mathematics Subtest of the Peabody Individual Achievement Tests, which served as pretest scores. The treatments consisted of a traditional teacher-centered class for the control group and the STAD technique for the experimental group. Analysis of the posttest data yielded the following results: the mean off-task behavior was highly significant at the .001 level in favor of the experimental group; the overall posttest data was not significantly different between the two groups on self-concept even though the mean total was higher in four of the six factors of the Piers-Harril Children's Self Concept Scale for the experimental group; and the posttest data were significant at the .005 level in favor of the experimental group in mathematics achievement. The study concluded that the STAD technique may be more successful in decreasing off-task behavior and in increasing academic achievement than traditional teacher-centered strategies.

A HANDBOOK OF LEARNING ACTIVITIES FOR PRESCHOOL CHILDREN

Sandra McAfee Hall
(EdS, Early Childhood Education, August, 1983)

The purpose of this study as to prepare a handbook of learning activities for parents to use with preschoolers. Literature on early child development was reviewed to strengthen background of understanding and to substantiate a reason for developing the handbook.

The handbook included learning activities and experiences in the areas of language development, listening skills, motor skills, self-help skills and number skills. The activities and experiences were selected to promote the social, emotional, personal and academic growth and development of the young child.

THE RELATIONSHIP OF SELECTED JOB-RELATED FACTORS WITH JOB SATISFACTION AMONG TEACHERS ENROLLED IN GRADUATE PROGRAMS AT WEST GEORGIA COLLEGE

Joanne B. Harwell
(EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1983)

The subjects involved in this study were graduate students enrolled in courses at West Georgia College during the spring quarter, 1983. During the month of April, 165 students completed the Job Satisfaction Inventory and questionnaire; 106 students completed a Teacher Weekly Diary of time spent on clerical duties and non-instructional tasks.

Eight null hypotheses were stated:

1. There will be no significant correlation between time spent daily in clerical duties and the total score on the Job Satisfaction Inventory (JSI).

2. There will be no significant correlation between time spent daily in non-instructional tasks and the total JSI score.

3. There will be no significant correlation between the combined time of clerical duties/non-instructional tasks and the total JSI score.

4. There will be no significant correlation between the years of teaching experience and the total JSI score.

5. There will be no significant difference in the total JSI score among teachers who hold different kinds of teacher certificates.

6. There will be no significant difference in the total JSI score of male and female teachers.

7. There will be no significant difference in the total JSI score among teachers who teach one to nineteen pupils per week, twenty to thirty-nine pupils per week, forty to seventy-nine pupils per week, and above eighty pupils per week.

8. There will be no significant difference in the total JSI score among the five age classifications of teachers listed on the questionnaire.

Results of the study indicated a low negative correlation between time spent daily on clerical duties and the total JSI score; a low negative correlation between time spent daily on non-instructional tasks and the total JSI score; a low negative correlation between the combined time of clerical duties/non-instructional tasks and the total JSI score; and no significant correlatioin between the years of teaching experience and the total JSI score. The study also indicated no significant difference in the total JSI score among teachers who hold different kinds of teacher certificates; no significant difference in the total JSI score of male and female teachers; no significant difference between the total JSI score among teachers who teach one to nineteen pupils per week, twenty to

thirty-nine pupils per week, forty to seventy-nine pupils per week, and above eighty pupils per week; no significant difference in the total JSI score among the five age classifications of teachers listed on the questionnaire.

While the study showed that as clerical duties and non-instructional tasks increase, job satisfaction decreases, further research is needed to determine the job satisfaction of a more representative teacher population.

MULTINATIONAL CORPORATIONS AND THE GROWTH OF DEPENDENCY: AN ANALYSIS OF THE NORTHERN IRELAND ECONOMY

Julie Hastings (MA, History, December, 1983)

The subject matter of this master's thesis is an analysis of dependency theory as originally expounded by Prebisch (1950) and Frank (1967) among others, and its particular relevance when applied to Northern Ireland with regard to the influx and subsequent withdrawal of the multinational corporation. The thesis is of a theoretical nature, using secondary data, as it was impossible to carry out such a piece of work using first hand information when studying so many miles from Northern Ireland.

In this thesis, I have chosen to concentrate on industry in Northern Ireland, which prospered after World War II, but has severely declined since 1970, and as a result, unemployment has hit record levels in the United Kingdom. These changes in the Northern Ireland economy can only be seen in the context of the influx of the multinational corporation worldwide, for example, the New International Division of Labour, discussed in chapter 2, which refers to the way the division of labour within a firm has been increasingly extended over international boundaries, and the historical changes in the Northern Ireland state. The internationalization of capital and labour after 1945, signified by the growth of the multinational corporation and branch plant economy has drawn the Irish periphery into the orbit of metropolitan capital. Now, the growth centres of Irish industry are foreign-owned and orientated for export. The Irish factory is merely a staging post within an underproductive system. Because of this, I wish to examine how Northern Ireland fits into Prebisch's 'centre and periphery' analysis of the world economy, because I believe the Northern Irish economy has remained on the periphery, subject to the changes in the centre (England) and in world capitalistic enterprises.

Furthermore, since the 1970's, Northern Ireland has been gripped by a severe crisis. I have set out to examine the effect the unstable political situation has had on industry, and if this has led to further dependence on

Britain. Factories have been forced to close, and now foreign investment is at a low ebb. At times of recession, it is usually those firms on the periphery which are the first to close, and Northern Ireland has been no exception. Contributing to this situation, the armed conflict in cities such as Belfast and Londonderry has tempted many multinationals to shift location to the Irish Republic or mainland Britain. Thus, the Northern Ireland economy has remained peripheral. This has led I will try to show, not only to mass unemployment, but to the reinforcing of sectarian division, with discrimination still taking place against Catholics, shown also by government policy to locate incoming firms in the mainly Protestant eastern half of the Province, and most importantly to a much greater dependency on the British Government. The British state has now assumed absolute economic and political centrality in the Northern Ireland economy, and the decisions affecting it. It provides incentives to attract more firms, and unemployment benefit to those out of work. These are the major hypotheses I have set out to test in this thesis.

I feel such a study is important because Northern Ireland is not a unique country, but this dependence goes on throughout the third world. Dependency theory stressed the fact that industrialization did not bring with it expected development benefits, but instead the developing countries have become even more dependent on the industrialized countries of the 'centre', and on the multinational corporation. It is possible to generalize trends in the third world and in Northern Ireland as identical, as conditions differ greatly, for example, with wages and the size of the labour force involved, it is still of importance to me to compare and contrast the two.

Finally, I give an overview of industrial relations in domestic and foreign firms, and compare Britain and Northern Ireland. It is interesting to note that strikes and walk-outs are much less prevalent in the multinational corporation. It seems apparent that the movement of Northern Ireland into the dominance of world capitalism can only be to its disadvantage, with most of the benefits flowing to the 'core' countries, and the overall strategy of the multinational corporation can only be seen to have ill effects on the governments and workforce of both third world countries, and countries of 'peripheral' Europe such as Northern Ireland.

THE EFFECTS OF CLASSROOM DISCUSSION UPON MORAL JUDGMENT IN FIRST YEAR CHILDREN

Elaine Jocobi
(EdS, Early Childhood Education, June, 1983)

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of an attempt to develop the first-year child's moral reasoning ability through the use of

Piaget-type classroom discussions. The Piaget-type measure was used to determine if there was a difference in the change in moral reasoning between the experimental and the control groups as reflected by an increase in the number of intentional responses from the pretest to the posttest.

Methods and Procedures

The study was conducted in an elementary public school during the 1982-1983 school year. The sample included 28 first-year subjects who attended the public school. There were two heterogenous groups. The experimental group was 14 subjects who discussed 70 problem stories. The control group was the 14 subjects who did not participate in the discussions of problem stories.

Following a procedure suggested by Piaget's theory, the subjects were interviewed using Piaget's clinical method. The pretest and posttest experiment was designed to test the salience of intentions and consequences on the subjects' moral judgments in Piagetian tasks. For comparison, the pretest score was used. This provided the initial level of moral development in the area of intentionality. At the termination of 70 discussions of moral dilemmas a posttest was administered to determin the percentage of preference for considering the intentions of the story character rather than a preference for consideration of consequences of actions.

Results

Findings of the study were:

1. The control group's percentage of growth represented an improvement of 26% between pretest and posttest results.

2. The experimental group made a 28% increase in intentional moral judgment responses.

Conclusions

Based on analysis of the data it was concluded that:

1. Although the training of the two groups differed significantly, there was no appreciable difference between the two groups in their development of a preference for intentional judgments on the Piaget-type posttest.

2. The null hypothesis was not rejected.

SELF-DECEPTION PRACTICED BY INTELLECTUAL MISFITS IN FOUR FLANNERY O'CONNOR STORIES

Linda Jean Watson Kaufman
(MA, English, August, 1983)

After giving a brief review of four Flannery O'Connor short stories: "Good Country People," "The Enduring Chill," "Everything That Rises Must Converge," and "The Comforts of Home," this paper attempts to deal with the concepts of deception, self-deception, and the importance of the eternal search for truth. In each story, the reader discovers that the forms to which the protagonists pay homage — education, art, materialism, and comfort — cannot sustain them. Furthermore, a tension between faith and the grotesque exists in O'Connor's works. Because O'Connor's concern is always for spiritual gain and because her works developed as her theological understanding grew, the reader sees a glimmer of hope even in her most despairing short story. Finally, the movement in this paper is from the comic to the tragic. It also shows a movement from the loss of limb to the loss of life. Always the concern is for truth and for the characters to discover themselves — LIKE I AM.

THE EFFICACY OF TEACHING GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES TO FIFTH-GRADE STUDENTS

Klaus Langkilde (EdS, Middle Grades Education, March, 1984)

The purpose of this study was to determine if a specifically designed unit developing selected factors about global perspectives would have an influence on fifth-grade students' attitudes toward global perspectives.

The subjects who participated in this study were from one fifth-grade class at Bill Arp Elementary Schol in Douglasville, Georgia. A Global Attitude Scale designed by the investigator measuring acceptance, ethnocentrism, attitudes towards foreign nations and ethnic groups, and attitudes towards international relations and co-operation was administered to students before and after the treatment to measure a possible change of attitudes towards a global perspective.

Pre-test and posttest scores were compared for the entire group, for the boys, and for the girls. A significant decline occurred in the mean negative score on the inventory over the treatment period for both the boys and the total group. There was no significant increase in the mean positive score for the total group or any of the subgroups.

It is recommended that more material regarding global perspectives should be produced and incorporated into the already existing curriculum. Also, more research on the effect of long term educational programs emphasizing a global perspective must be conducted.

THE MALE ARTIST'S TREATMENT OF TWO FEMALE STEREOTYPES

Debra Newell Martin (MA, English, August, 1983)

Male artists have displayed an ambivalent attitude toward two common female stereotypes of their own making, the sensuous woman and the virtuous woman. These artists are attracted to the vibrant, sensuous woman, yet uphold the virtuous woman on moral grounds.

This thesis examines the origin and validity of these two stereotypes and their development from works of Greek literature to the novels of Hawthrone, Thackeray, and Hardy in the nineteenth century. In the works of Greek literature, women are categorized as monsters, sensuous women who take life and embody evil, and mothers, who represent virtue. The concept of the dark temptress and fair angel is evident in the works of Hawthorne. While his dark woman is far more talented and successful than the pale, fair woman, the dark one is destroyed - - - a situation which recurs in novels as these male artists attempt to end their works in accordance with traditional values. Hardy's dark women are vain and crafty, and his fair ones are simple and natural. While Hardy categorizes his female characters in terms of weak and strong, appearances do not always reveal reality, for the strong have weaknesses, and the weak have fundamental strengths. Thackeray's female characters seem to be judged by different standards; Thackeray regards the inability to love as a serious character flaw. His strong women are often appealing in many respectes character flaw. His strong women are often appealing in many respects but lack the need to be truly loved and the willingness to give love which characterize the weaker females in is novels.

Although these stereotypes do not present complete and sometimes even accurate portrayals of feminine character, they remain valid and worthy of study because of the truths they reveal about the male artists who create them and their ambivalent attitudes toward these stereotypes.

HERE AND NOW: ESSAYS IN PSYCHOLOGY AND RELIGION

Bruce Linwood Mills (MA, Psychology, August, 1983)

Religious man embodies questioning. As a questioner this man asks: what am I? Who am I? Through his sciences man may determine to answer the prior question with excellence. It is the latter question which concerns us herein, however. In man's quest for God, his instinctive journey toward meaningfulness, he seeks to discover and sustain meaning for his subjective presence in existence: the 'who' of his own, personal being. This process is his religion. He seeks to know, and his reason delivers him to the threshold of faith where science can find no agreement, no objection. If, in the god around which the religion of this man annulates, there is meaning, then this

is a task of man's reason. In his personal quest for blessedness, for authenticity, for individuation, for eternal life, man finds meaning. Here we address religious man for it is he who truly concerns himself with the questions most deeply rooted in history: who am I? What am I?

CONTEMPORARY THEORY AND METHODOLOGY IN THREE BODY-CENTERED, EXPERIENTIAL PSYCHOTHERAPIES

Eric G. Rosen (MA, Psychology, August, 1983)

The field of body-centered, experiential psychotherapies has developed over the last fifty years through a wide range of disciplines. This field originated as an alternative to the psychological mainstream formed by the psychoanalytic and behaviorist traditions; its existence can be seen as part of a general paradigm shift occurring on all levels of society. A new generation of therapies has evolved which have synthesized elements of earlier disciplines with recent innovations and new information. These contemporary approaches are exemplified by the psychotherapies developed by Albert Pesso (Psychomotor Therapy), Eugene T. Gendlin (Experiential Psychotherapy) and Ron Kurtz (Hakomi Method). The discussion of these works will focus on the theoretical principles common to all three and the specific methodology of each. A research study by the author will demonstrate the connections between five emotional states and their corresponding patterns of somatic expression. A case study by the author will demonstrate the practical application of the Hakomi Method.

CUSTOMS OF BLACKS IN TROUP COUNTY, GEORGIA, FROM 1900 TO 1950: AN ORAL HISTORY COLLECTION

Louis H. Russell (EdS, Secondary Education, August, 1983)

This study was undertaken to collect factual historical data of the customs of Blacks in Troup County, Georgia, from 1900 to 1950. The study was also undertaken to substantiate the fact that oral history is an invaluable instrument for gathering actual historical data and preserving the historical data for future generations.

A list of questions which were relevant to the subject to be studied was devised. The interviewees were selected and interviewed by the researcher. Eight of the ten taped interviews were transcribed, and the remaining two tapes were summarized.

The data collected were examined for accuracy. The data appear to be historically accurate. This study supports the contention that oral history is an invaluable instrument for collecting and perserving factual historical data.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF AN ALGEBRA CLASS TAUGHT FROM A NON-TECHNICAL PRACTICE-ORIENTED TEXT

Edward R. Sears, Jr. (EdS, Secondary Education, August, 1983)

This study was designed to determine what effect, if any, the use of a non-technical practice-oriented text would have on the mathematical achievement of first-year algebra students.

Subjects used in this study were 28 ninth graders at Mount Zion High School in Mount Zion, Georgia. The students were assigned randomly to one of two algebra classes. The only difference in the treatment of the two classes was that they used different texts. The control group used *Algebra: Its Elements and Structure, Book I*, by Sobel and Banks, while the experimental group used *Algebra I, An Incremental Development*, by Saxon.

The Cooperative Algebra I Test was used in the study as both the pretest and the posttest. The pretest was given to both groups at the beginning of the 1982-1983 school year. The experimental process lasted for the entire school year. During the last week the posttest was given. At the end of the experiment, mean scores for the posttest were computed.

An analysis of covariance procedure was used to test for difference in mean gain scores between the experimental and control groups in subject matter knowledge. The null hypothesis was rejected at the .10 level of significance.

It was concluded in this study that the use of a non-technical practice-oriented text does significantly improve the knowledge of subject matter for first-year algebra students as measured by test scores. Due to the small number of students in this study, it is recommended that further studies be made in this area to determine if the findings hold true.

THE STUDY OF STUDENT AND SUPERVISOR ASSESSMENTS OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE MIDDLE GRADES EDUCATION (ELEMENTARY EDUCATION) SPECIALIST IN EDUCATION DEGREE PROGRAM IN THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION AT WEST GEORGIA COLLEGE FROM 1972 THROUGH 1980

Joyce Anne Steelmon (EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1983)

Since its inception in 1971, the Specialist in Education degree program in Middle Grades (Elementary) Education at West Georgia College had not been formally evaluated as to effectiveness by its graduates. By 1980, 96 students had completed the program, a sufficient number of degree recipients for a follow-up evaluation to be attempted.

Two questionnaires were utilized, each having seven items whicl corresponded to the seven program objectives/components. On questionnaire was used to assess the graduates'opinions of progran effectiveness, while the other was used to assess professional supervisors opinions of progrm effectiveness with respect to graduates' jol performance. Subjects were asked to choose one of five scaled responses t each item; in addition, they were invited to record any comments the wished on the reverse side of the questionnaires.

Statistical analysis of the data revealed that supervisors, in eight of te instances, rated the program significantly higher than did degre recipients. In three of ten instances,graduate responses and superviso responses proved to have statistically significant correlation coefficients

Response tabulation disclosed that both program graduates and thei professional supervisors maintained that the program was effective i achieving its stated objectives, individually and overall. Examination o comments, however, did not consistently support the findings of th statistical analysis or the tabulation of questionnaire responses.

A COMPARISION OF CAREER AWARENESS BETWEEN BOYS AND GIRLS IN THE FOURTH GRADE AS DETERMINED BY THE GEORGIA CRITERION REFERENCED TEST

Sharon Dianne Tatum (EdS, Middle Grades Education, March 1984)

This study was a comparison between fourth year boys and girls as to whom would be more career aware. The 1981 Georgia Criterion-Referenced Test on Career Development was used as the measurement for the study.

The hypothesis was that there would be no difference in the achievement of the twenty objectives and the total of these objectives in four areas between boys and girls. The statistical analysis used for the comparison was chi square with a .05 level of rejection of the hypothesis.

It was determined that there was no statistical difference in thirteen of the objectives. There was a slight statistical difference on the remaining seven. Boys scored slightly higher on two of the seven, girls scored slightly higher on five of the seven. Boys scored significantly higher on one area of Form I. Girls scored significantly higher on three areas on Form II. There was no significant difference on the remaining areas.

Girls at the fourth year tend to have a clearer view of the world of work and their place in it.

THE EFFECTS OF A SELF-CLAIMED PSYCHIC HEALER ON THE ROOT GROWTH OF CORN SEEDS

Joseph Michael Wallack (MA, Psychology, August, 1983)

A self-claimed "psychic healer" was studied in three experiments for the ossibility of a healing effect on plants by the "laying on of hands." The ealer treated a sealed petrie dish containing germinating root growth-etarded corn seeds. The first experiment pre-soaked randomly drawn orn seeds for twelve hours in a 2% NaCl solution. The seeds were then andomly assigned to three treatment groups in prepared petrie dishes: ealing, control and a control for the temperature of the healer's hands. Root growth was measured after 96 hours. The second experiment tested or a possible transitory healing effect following the same procedures as xperiment one but measuring the roots after 48 hours. The third xperiment reduced the pre-soaking period of the corn seeds to 8 hours to est the possibility that the 12 hour pre-soaking period was too severe to llow a "healing effect" to manifest. The roots were measured after 96 ours. Using a Kruskal-Wallis (Non-Parametric) One Way Analysis of ariance all·p values were found to be greater than .05. Implications for urther research suggest further studies are needed to avoid a Type II error - ruling out any possibility of a healing effect on plants by the laying on of ands. For the present set of experiments the null hypothesis remains ntact.

THE EFFECTS OF PEER EVALUATION ON ENGLISH COMPOSITION FOR REGULAR EIGHTH-GRADE STUDENTS

udie Nix Witherow (EdS, Middle Grades Education, December, 1983)

The purpose of this study was to compare the effects of peer evaluation nd teacher evaluation on the writing achievement and apprehension ward writing of regular eighth-grade students. It was hypothesized that ere would be no significant difference betwen the effect of peer valuation and that of teacher evaluation on either the student's writing chievement or apprehension toward writing. A secondary hypothesis ated that there would be no significant difference between the sexes with spect to writing achievement or apprehension. It was further ypothesized that there would be no significant interaction betwen the sex f the student and the type of evaluation with respect to writing chievement or apprehension.

The forty-six students involved in the study were randomly scheduled by mputer into two composition classes of twenty-three students each. uring the twelve-week course both groups were presented the same urse content with the exception that peer evaluation was used with the xperimental group and teacher evaluation was used with the control

group. Two writing samples were taken at the beginning of the study and two at the end. The four writing samples, coded with student numbers, were mixed before they were evaluated by a team of trained raters who used the Diederich Rating Scale. Also, the Miller and Daly Apprehension Survey was used to measure writing apprehension.

Based on the analysis of the data, the experimental (peer evaluation) group showed a highly significant gain (p=.002) in writing achievement over the control (teacher evaluation) group; therefore, the corresponding null hypothesis was rejected. Other data relative to apprehension toward writing, the sex variable, and the interaction effect showed no significant difference between the two groups; therefore, the remaining null hypotheses were accepted.

Conclusions from this study indicate that for regular eighth-grade students peer evaluation is superior to teacher evaluation as a methodology for the teaching of writing since the students in the experimental (peer evaluation) group improved their writing achievement significantly more than did the control (teacher evaluation) group and showed no significant difference in apprehension toward writing. A recommendation ased on this study is that a similar study be conducted on other grade levels. It is also recommended that a similar study be conducted involving students of varying abilities and learning styles.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF READING ACHIEVEMENT IN FIRST GRADE USING MASTERY LEARNING AND NON-MASTERY LEARNING

Kathy B. Young (EdS, Early Childhood Education, June, 1983)

The purpose of this study was to compare the reading achievement of first-grade students in ECRI (Exemplary Center for Reading Instruction) mastery learning classrooms to first-grade students in non-ECRI classrooms in terms of the following:

1. total reading achievement
2. phonic analysis
3. vocabulary
4. comprehension
5. language expression

The population of this study consisted of first-grade students attending Maple Street School during the 1982-1983 school year. Students enrolled in first grade were randomly assigned to classes in equal allotments by sex and race. The sample was randomly drawn from the population using the same strata of sex and race. The experimental group consisted of 30 students from ECRI classrooms taught by mastery-trained teachers. The

control group consisted of 30 students from non-ECRI classrooms taught by teachers having no mastery training.

The California Achievement Test, Level C, Form 11 was used to collect data for testing the null hypotheses. the statistic used to test the null hypotheses was the analysis of covariance. The level at which the null hypotheses would be rejected was set at .05. None of the null hypotheses were rejected.

The results of the data from this study have shown that ECRI students scored higher in each subtest and total reading score. The differences were not statistically significant, however, chance probability levels were low enough to indicate a strong possibility that the difference might have been significant had the sample been greater.

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The purpose of this publication is to provide encouragement for faculty research and to make available results of such activity. The *Review*, published annually, accepts original scholarly work and creative writing. West Georgia College assumes no responsibility for contributor's views. The style guide is *MLA Handbook, Second Edition*. Although the *Review* is primarily a medium for the faculty of West Georgia College, other sources are invited.

An annual Bibliography includes doctoral dissertations, major recitals and major exhibits. Theses and articles in progress or accepted are not listed. A faculty member's initial listing is comprehensive and appears in the issue of the year of his employment. The abstracts of all master's theses and educational specialist's projects written at West Georgia College are included as they are awarded.

THE ANNIMAR: A MANNERIST ARCHEOLOGICAL-ANTHROPOLOGICAL ART EXHIBITION

"I can escape despair only through imagination."
-Camoes

*by Dorothy Joiner**

Any art exhibition genuinely novel in theme and form spurs the observer to search for kindred antecedents in the tradition. This quest for parallels between contemporary art and works from the past, moreover, is not mere intellectual dilettantism. On the contrary, understanding modern art in the light of earlier works serves to illuminate the meaning and the style of both. Such an endeavor reinforces our sense of tradition, reminding us that our cultural legacy is still developing. As T.S. Eliot has said, each new work modifies in some way the entire heritage. With these considerations in mind, I will outline several stylistic parallels between Mannerism, a 16th-century European movement in the visual arts, and Bruce Bobick's lastest exhibition entitled *The Annimar: Recently Unearthed Artifacts from an Imaginary North American Pre-Columbian Culture.*

As an art movement, Mannerism is generally defined as that period between the apogee of the Renaissance at the beginning of the sixteenth century, when Leonardo, Michelangelo, and Raphael were working, and the advent of the Baroque period characterized by the style of Bernini and Rubens. During this time frame in Europe—from about 1520 to 1600—artists deliberately violated the esthetic canons of their predecessors during the Renaissance, rejecting their scrupulously cultivated classical principles of harmony, clarity, and simplicity. The Renaissance artist had for the most part accepted the discipline of objective reality, aiming at compositions that imitated the ways things actually looked. His human figures were correctly proportioned and placed in natural, graceful poses; the illusion of space created in his pictures convincing reproduced a corner of the world as it is generally experienced; and the scale of the objects he depicted was similar to that of nature. In short, the Renaissance artist worked in a realistic though beautiful style.

The realism of Renaissance art, laboriously acquired during the course of the fifteenth century, however, was purposively inverted by the Mannerist, who, though he often continued to employ the forms of the Renaissance, delighted in thwarting the expectations of his viewer. He freely distorted the proportions of his figures, often twisting them into exaggerated and contorted poses; he constructed irrational and sometimes disturbing space; and he ignored realistic scale.

A closer look at the term "mannerism" offers greater insight into this provocative period. The Italian word *maniera*, meaning manner or style,

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from which Mannerism derives, is borrowed from the world of human deportment. It connotes a *savoir-faire*, an ease and polish of speech and conduct. Said to be demanded by Lorenzo di Medici in his women, *maniera* refers to courtly sophistication antipodal to rustic boorishness and naïveté. First applied to the art of his contemporaries by the sixteenth-century artist and commentator, Vasari, *maniera* meant the characteristic manner of an individual artist or of a national or historical style. But, more importantly, for Vasari, *maniera* referred to that essential quality whereby art provided an ideal imitation of nature.

In Vasari's view, great art was created not by copying reality as it appears to the eye but rather by imitating an *Idea* of perfection born in the mind of the artist. Following contemporary Neoplatonic thinking, Vasari believed that a metaphysical ideal rather than the objects that one sees must determine artistic forms. For Vasari, the artist must saturate his mind with only the most beautiful elements, hands, heads, bodies, legs; and from this study he might then create figures which are more beautiful—since more ideal—than any found in nature.

Vasari's conception of art often seems loftier than many of the works his century actually produced. Whereas some Mannerist works reveal a seriousness of purpose, even an anguished sensibility, many others now seem somewhat frivolous to the modern taste, as, for example, Cellini's elaborate gold and ceramic salt cellar, made for Francis I of France. The ornate oval base of the cellar does indeed support containers for salt and pepper, but the object's function as a dispenser of seasonings is secondary to its playful symbolic complexity. Because it is derived from the sea, salt is stored in a boat-shaped container under the aegis of Neptune, who lounges in lanquid ease appropriate to a god. Coming from the land, Pepper, is kept in a miniature triumphal arch, with a personification of earth nearby. The bent leg of each figure represents mountains and the straight leg plains.

Both the Mannerist anguish as well as its paradoxical frivolity, however, are understandable in view of the century's Neo-Platonic, world-denying mindset. The Mannerist unreined his imagination in a cavalier stance toward objective reality because he considered the ideal, a creation of his own mind, to be beyond the level of common experience. And because he devalued reality as it is usually lived, he took pleasure in causing his observer to question what is normally thought to be solid and actual. To this end he cultivated ambiguity and illusion. This *inganno* (illusion) and *disinganno* (disillusion) became fundamental to the Mannerist esthetic.

What then is the similarity between the courtly, abstracted art of Mannerism and Bruce Bobick's Annimar exhibition? Though seemingly disparate and distanced from each other in time, these works are much

alike in their relationship toward the real and the ideal and this kinship of mind manifests itself in analogous techniques.

Bobick's unusual collection of art works consists of objects and fragments said to derive from a Pre-Columbian white culture centered in the Upper Ohio River Valley. Actually, however, the artist has created these "artifacts" himself. From handmade paper he has made a series of pouches, turtle skulls, shells and vertebrae, pot fragments, layered garments, a surgical dome, and what he terms a "broken plevis icon." He has carved symbolic writing—as yet undeciphered—onto several granite "petroglyphs." And one of the most striking works of the exhibition, the "Wrapped Ceremonial Blade Form," is a long wooden pole, which he has partially covered with human hair and has carved into a blade at its lower end. The artist uses these simulated "artifacts" as points of departure for a detailed anthropological account of the Annimar culture, its beliefs and practices.

Pivotal to the enjoyment of this exhibition is its whimsical "sleight of hand." The viewer is presented with what seem to be the "real" remains of an ancient civilization. The pot shard, for instance, is "cracked" to look authentic. The granite pieces have been buried in the ground to make them look old. Many of the "artifacts," futhermore, are displayed in plexiglas cases much like those of a museum. In his commentary, moreover, the artist asserts that the Annimar had a special process for preserving paper (now lost, of course), thus explaining why this normally fragile material has survived in its present excellent condition. To enhance verisimilitude even further, the artist locates the center of the Annimar culture in what is now Pennsylvania, citing specific locations, such as "Two Lick Creek" and "Dixon Run," as former Annimar strongholds. He describes the complex divorce procedures of the Annimar and even their ritual food, the royal turtle soup. And with pseudo-scientific exactitude, he employs Latin terms like *Tsuga Canadensis* for Eastern Hemlock. This wealth of detail concerning the Annimar people and their lifestyle serves to persuade the viewer that what he sees is authentic.

That this elaborate fabrication seems genuine was confirmed by the query of the printers who typeset the exhibiton catalog. They wanted to know how the artist knew so much about the Annimar without being able to read their language.

Together with his solicitude for the appearance of reality, however, the artist at the same time teases the viewer, including hints—often humorous— of his dissembling. In the title, he uses the word "imaginary." He also parodies the titles of scholarly publications: *The Art Bulletin* becomes "The Bulletin of Art." And the names of authorities cited are often scramble versions of real ones. Lars Loosen, an archeologist

mentioned, for instance, is suspiciously like Lew Larson of the WGC faculty. The viewer who initially accepts this masterful counterfeit and then perceives the hoax is forced—in Emily Dickinson's phrase—to "earn. . . [his] own surprise."

Bobick's playful cultivation of an illusion that almost simultaneously dissolves into disillusion recalls the Mannerist *inganno* and *disinganno,* which I mentioned earlier. The Mannerist took great delight in creating ambiguous natural and artificial forms. One 16th-century master of illusion, Bernard Palissy, constructed outdoor dining areas termed topiary *cabinets*, which imitated solid architecture made of wood and stone. Beside his sculptured greenery, Palissy placed deceptively detailed animals fashioned of faience. His ideal garden included a pool with ceramic fish in bold relief. When the water stirred, the fish seemed to move. The artist boasted of the exactitude with which he imitated the scales and fins of aquatic creatures. This predilection for ambiguity and its correlative surprise stem from the Mannerists' highly subjective, often whimsical attitude toward outer reality.

And is not Bobick's playful parody of modern archeology and anthropology also analogous to the Mannerist's free distortion of nature and of classical forms? Just as the Mannerist contorted the human figure to conform to his personal ideal, so too, does Bobick "twist" scientific commentary to convey his own perception of desirable human behavior. His Annimar are a benevolent people who have overcome not only their own violence but that of their enemies as well. They do not kill an intruder but rather ensnare him on one of their elaborate traps. Retaining the invader's bellicose spirit in a special pouch, the Annimar thereby render him peace-loving. They then send the converted warrior home with a gift of maize seeds, symbolizing his new pacifism.

These fundamental characteristics common to Bobick's Annimar exhibition and to sixteenth-century Mannerist art suggest analogous sensibilities. It is generally agreed that the Mannerist contortion of classical principles and forms was evidence of haunting anxieties. Their rejection of the world stemmed from fear and consequent unease. Their seemingly playful whimsy was the paradoxical obverse of deep disquietude. Similarly, just beneath the Annimar exhibition's drollery lies a painful questioning of human violence and evil. The exhibition represents the artist's imaginative solution to this most fundamental problem of human existence.

The parallels which I have discerned between Bobick's Annimar exhibition and Mannerist art—their cultivation of illusion together with surprise at its dissipation, their fanciful turning of forms from their original intent, and their underlying disquietude—might all be more fully elaborated. I have merely suggested an outline for further speculation.

ATLANTANS AND HALLEY'S COMET IN 1910

*by B.E. Powell**

Georgians are eagerly awaiting the arrival of Halley's comet in 1986. A few people who saw it in 1910 are still living and may have an opportunity to see Halley's comet in two successive appearances. Many other people recall their parents or grandparents telling about the comet.

Large numbers of comets probably exist in the fringes of the solar system. A comet has a nucleus (which is only a few miles in diameter) made of a mixture of frozen gases and solid particles. If a comet comes sufficiently close to the sun, some of the frozen gases will melt to form a diffuse envelope (known as the coma) about the nucleus. If the comet comes even closer to the sun, the solar wind (high speed particles which have escaped from the sun) blows some of the vaporized particles to form a tail, which always points away from the sun. The tail of a comet may be millions of miles long, and the head (coma and nucleus) may be thousands of miles across when a comet is near the sun.

At least a dozen comets are seen each year by astronomers using telescopes. Some of these comets are periodic and are seen at regular intervals. Others are seen for the first time as a newly discovered periodic comet or one which is making its only journey through the inner part of the solar system. Perhaps one comet per decade is bright enough to be seen easily with the unaided eye. Halley's comet is probably the best known of these celestial visitors.

It is necessary to know some of the history of the study of comets to understand public reaction to Halley's comet in 1910. Comets had been considered to be messengers of disaster for thousands of years. Earthquakes, deaths of rulers, diseases, and military defeats were associated with comets. People were frequently terrified when they saw a comet.

These ancient fears should have been eliminated in the seventeenth century when additional scientific information about the nature of comets was acquired. Edmond Halley saw a bright comet in 1682 and began to study comets. His searches of old records revealed that a similar bright comet had been seen at intervals of about 75 years. Halley also used the recent work of Isaac Newton to calculate orbits of comets to demonstrate that periodic comets revolve around the sun in elliptical orbits. He predicted that the comet he saw in 1682 would return in 1758. The reappearance of the comet in 1758 confirmed Halley's model of comet orbits.

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Halley's work indicated comets were members of the solar system and should not be feared any more than a planet, moon, or asteroid. However, the ancient superstitions were believed by many people, even as more scientific studies were conducted on comets.

By the twentieth century, advances had been made in astronomical instrumentation. Telescopes had been improved and accessories had been developed. Cameras and spectrographs, for example, could be attached to telescopes to photograph and determine the composition of comets.

In 1910, two recent scientific discoveries probably contributed to some concern about the imminent passage of Halley's comet. The orbit calculated from the position of the comet on photographs made in August, 1909, indicated the earth might be sufficiently close to the comet on May 18, 1910, to pass through the tail of the comet. Secondly, early spectroscopic studies detected cyanogen gas in the tail of the comet. These discoveries reinforced the beliefs of poorly informed and superstitious people that the comet would surely destroy life on the earth.

The comet was observed in the Atlanta area for several weeks in 1910. It was visible in the eastern sky before sunrise from late April until May 18. It was then visible in the western sky after sunset until June.

The Atlanta Constitution printed much information about Halley's comet in 1910. Reports of scientific studies from astronomical observatories, suggestions about observing the comet, and reactions of people to the comet were featured in these articles. Even though this coverage was extensive, some things which were featured in other newspapers were not printed. *The Constitution* did not publish photographs of Halley's comet made at major observatories in May, 1910, or illustrations showing the position of the comet against the background stars. Only one drawing, showing the orbits of the earth and the comet, was included in the *Constitution's* coverage.

Some of the first coverage on the celestial visitor consisted of general information. Mrs. C.J. Haden presented a "brilliant paper on the subject of Halley's comet" to a meeting of the Atlanta Woman's Club (*1, 2*). A series of articles entitled "Halley's Comet" by Frederic Campbell, President of the Department of Astronomy at the Brooklyn Institute, described comets, the current study of Halley's comet, and the history and legends associated with the famous comet (*2*).

In early May, 1910, several other people described the comet. Using the headlines " Have You Seen the Comet? How the Sky Tramp Looks", a reporter stated he had seen the comet at 3:15 a.m. He described the comet's tail as being hazy (even on a clear morning) and not as big as a cart wheel. He also said people in the same neighborhood were having "comet parties"

by awaking to see and discuss the celestial visitor (*3*, 5). Such comet parties continued over a number of days, as people in many sections of Atlanta were "busy setting their alarm clocks." W.L. Fain described his observations of the comet very precisely in a letter to the editor. He indicated how close the comet was to the morning star (Venus), its height above the horizon, and the length of its tail. "Those who wish to see it will be well repaid for their trouble in rising early and looking toward the eastern horizon" (*4*, 3).

As more people became aware of Halley's comet, the "sky tramp" was blamed (at least jokingly, in some instances) for many mishaps during the viewing season of 1910. The comet was said to be responsible for the record cold weather in late April, for soft-shelled eggs being laid by hens, and for the failure of cotton seeds to germinate properly. Romances were spoiled by the comet, and one marriage ceremony was delayed until after the comet's closest approach on May 18. An oculist suggested the comet was responsible for increases in the number of people needing glasses. Similarly, physicians blamed the comet for patients' ills that could not be disgnosed as gout, heart failure, or other disorders. Trains were said to run late because of the comet (*5*, 4).

Despite additional assurances from the astronomers that the world would not be harmed by the comet (*6*, 1), people thought otherwise. Hundreds of Atlanta Negroes refused to work during the week of May 18. ("What's the use of working, if the comet is going to do things to us?") Special church service with prayers for deliverance from the comet were held. These fears may have been reinforced by unusually cool weather which might have suggested the comet was affecting the earth (*7*,1).

Weather forecaster Von Herrmann stated emphatically that "comet or no comet, the weather would be the same." He was credited with the following remarks: "Halley's comet has been charged with a good many sins, but the man who blames Atlanta's weather upon the wayfarer of the skies is almost as heartless as the man who waylaid the babe on the way to Sunday school and robbed it of its contribution penny at the point of a piece of lead pipe"(*8*,4).

On May 18, readers of the *Constitution* were informed that Atlanta would be "saved" by clouds. Weather forecaster Mr. Von Herrmann predicted that the sky would be cloudy when the earth was passing through the tail of the comet. Observers would be deprived of seeing any unusual effects. For the concerned people, this had even more meaning—the clouds would serve as a blanket to prevent the tail of the comet from touching the earth (*9*, 1).

Comet stories were told on the day of the closest approach. City Councilman Harrison's facetious resolution inviting Halley's comet to visit Atlanta was tabled. Likewise, the parents of a newly-born baby rejected a suggestion to name the infant "Comet." The mayor's executive secretary, Harvey Johnson, said that if things became too serious that night "a fellow might take four fingers of rye and trust to the Lord." Other city officials had additional stories of people being afraid the comet would set the world on fire, praying and sitting in the "amen corner" at church services, using money to have a good time instead of paying rent due before the world might end, and worrying about having suitable clothing for burial (*10,* 3).

One well-known Atlanta businessman who was also a member of the city park board used the comet as an excuse for not going to work on May 18. He sent the following note to his office. "Dear -----, If I come to work at all today it will be late. Nervous members of my family insist that I stay at home until the comet danger has passed. Yours, ----" (*11*, 7).

Reactions to the comet on the city, state, national, and international levels were reported on May 19. On the local level, the headlines were "COMET CAME! BUT THAT'S ALL!" The article continued, "The comet has come and gone, and nothing more serious has happened than a spell of bad weather, if that can be charged up to the celestial wanderer. With all the fears and misgivings the comet has caused, he left us as he found us, and we are still doing business at the same old stand . . . And when Halley's comet passed, and neither the heavens fell nor the earth was rent in twain nor any other hair-raising phenomena of similar dire character was exhibited, the somewhat skeptical and pessimistic inhabitants of this mundane sphere breathed a long, sweet sigh of relief and then went back to sleep and dreams . . . It was the tail of the thing that interested Atlantans, just as it will be the tale of the thing that will interest coming generations when the oldest inhabitant brazenly declares that he saw the comet itself and had his hair singed while diving into the coal bin or the storm cellar" (*11*, 7).

Many comet parties had been held on May 18. "In fact, it is very doubtful if any appreciable degree of the population slept any at all until it was apparent that there would be nothing more doing in the way of a comet for the next 75 years. People stood on housetops and in the streets and watched the heavens for hours . . ." (*11*, 7).

Pranks were played on participants at some of the comet parties. Youths released balloons attached to burning materials. "Carousing comet parties Wednesday evening and Thursday morning were temporarily suspended and petrified, as to speak, by the spectacle of flaming bodies sailing blithely

through the heavens. It is said that in the neighborhood of deeper Decatur Street a few of the more susceptible brethern have not yet returned to their homes" (*12*, 5).

Atlantans were also encouraged to see the comet in the northwestern sky during late May. A table of viewing times was given (*13*, 1).

Some advertisements tried to capitalize on the comet. One such ad was printed in the personal section. "Halley's comet visible at Frye's, corner of Marietta and Spring Streets (*14*, B9). Hastings' on Mitchell Street advertised while the comet was visible before sunrise: "SEEING THE COMET is the latest thing in early moring stunts. If you get up to see the comet, why not stay up and finish the plantings in that unfinished garden that you began a couple of months ago?" (*15*, 10). Finally, a "COMET WEEK SALE" was used by one Atlanta store (*16*, D1).

Humor was also featured in the newspaper reports. Some cartoons were printed depicting the comet and interactions with the comet in various forms. For example, a cartoon with the caption "Never Touched Her!" showed Mother Earth (wearing a dress and an old gray bonnet) saying "Well! It's past and I'm still here!" as the comet was shown receding in the background. Short, witty remarks were frequently given in an editorial column. For example, "The comet has the big head, but no tail of woe" and "The comet has made the noisy alarm clock popular" described the rising of Atlantans in early May to see the celestial visitor (*15*, 8). "The astronomers would have us believe the comet is sort of a celestial gas trust" (*16*, 6). The editor's concern about the mishaps blamed on the comet was reflected in the question "Who will be the goat after the comet disappears" (*18*, 4)? The entire experience with the comet was summarized in two final remarks. "Cheer up! It will be seventy-five years before you'll have to rise at 2:30 a.m. to witness the return of Halley's comet. The comet made the whole world the rising generation" (*19*, 6).

This is the way it was 75 years ago. In a few months, the current generation will have its opportunity to see Halley's comet. During this apparition, the famous comet will be studied more extensively than ever by astronomers. Since 1910, optical telescopes and accessories have been improved. New types of telescopes, such as radio and infrared, have been developed. For the first time, space probes will be sent out to study the comet. Hopefully, inhabitants of the earth will not feel the same fear and dread that was experienced by some people during the last visit. Although the conditions for seeing Halley's comet in 1986 will not be as favorable as in 1910, impressions will be formed to pass on to children and grandchildren.

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THE GREAT TRANSFORMATION OF RURAL TOWNSCAPES: CHANGES OF FORM AND COMMUNITY IN RURAL GEORGIA

*by Dick G. Winchell**

American rural townscapes have traditionally been dominated by unique visual imagery associated with community form and design. Architects, planners, builders and craftsmen created buildings and spaces with distinct identities. Although styles were often copied from one place to another, their modification, combination and relation to the unique site of each town created visually distinct rural communities.

The focus of this pleasant townscape was the Central Business District (CBD). The initial hub of commercial activity has gone through radical change in recent decades, however, and for commercial land a totally different land use pattern has evolved. There has been a transformation in land use from commercial facilities located in concentrated town centers to locations along auto-oriented strips or in shopping centers. Although the downtowns or CBD's of most small towns remain, the visual imagery of rural America is now influenced as much by McDonald's arches and convenience market signs as it is by Victorian facades.

This is the great transformation of rural townscapes from the pedestrian oriented town centers at the turn of the century to today's auto dominated strips and shopping centers. This paper traces two themes in the transformation of commercial lands. The first theme is the result of innovations which initially occurred in construction to make the old CBD's possible, and later innovation and use of the automobile as the major mode of transportation in rural communities. The second theme is the transformation in investment strategy and control of finances in rural communities from local control to a dominance of metropolitan interests and influences. The result is a radical change in the physical form of rural communities, and a change in rural values and sense of community. After describing the transformation to a new form of rural town, this paper will examine the impact of change on the social fabric of the community and will assess the implications of such change for the future.

Background

Initial settlement of the rural South and most of rural America is a Nineteenth Century phenomenon. Its design was essentially Victorian, and Maas suggests:

> *Nineteenth century Victoria, USA, had no unity of architectural style but it was a pleasant and successful ensemble of warmth, color, dignity and good cheer, quite as good in its*

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own way as Old World towns. The business blocks were remarkably well integrated; their storefronts did not clash with the nearby homes and the beautifully lettered signs enlivened Main Street facades (139-140).

Victorian architecture came about from the invention of the balloon-frame system of construction which eliminated the need for heavy timbered frameworks and skilled carpentry. Prior to the 1870's multi-stories construction required heavy timbers which had to be pre-cut and connected with wooden dowells in pre-drilled holes. Extreme skill in engineering and construction was required, and multi-storied buildings were extremely expensive. The balloon-frame was dependent upon the introduction of cheap, factory-made iron nails, and required little in the way of construction skills for multi-storied buildings and facades. This offered small towns the opportunity to construct large, attractive buildings which could copy the designs of Europe without the capital investment. The result was the Victorian era small town CBD, which typifies rural Georgia. Construction of these CBD buildings date from 1870 to 1910 (Mass 140).

Economics also contributed to the construction of attractive Victorian CBD's. Cotton production in the rural South led to "gin towns" and "mill towns" which were at first self-sufficient rural communities which produced goods for exchange with other parts of the country. As in other rural regions, local financing was established and greatly contributed to the unique designs of rural communities. Small town banks were formed by successful farmers and industrialists, speculators, or patrons with money who moved into the areas. Successful initial development created a pool of capital which was reinvested into the local economy through the construction of commercial businesses, industry and homes, but especially businesses in the CBD. These decisions to make major investments and to emphasize the attractive design of buildings were made by local businessmen.

The evolution of unique townscapes was the result of the plans or concepts for development held by these local businessmen or proposed by prospective entrepreneurs. Loan requests for different types of businesses and different building designs were reviewed by loan committees based on local needs and desires. The regional availability of building materials and local skills of builders were also considered in financing decisions. Generally each town had some initial townsite plan, centered around a town square or main street and a few initial buildings. Infill and expansion were based upon expediency of merchant loan requests and whatever business leaders felt was needed for their community. All of the initial financial decisions were controlled by local businessmen, and extensive

capital investment was made not simply for profit, but to create a unique and impressive town center for the community.

Southern agricultural economies quickly became dependent upon a crop lien tenancy system in which farmers were advanced funding for the next year's crops by local banks, which led to increasing dependency upon the region's cash crop, cotton (McLaurin 4). In some cases outside capital was borrowed from Northern investors to establish businesses and maintain Southern banks. This began a system of exporting profits being produced in the South through an increasing reliance upon outside capital. Although Northern interests soon dominated the timber industry, Southern investors maintained control of textiles and agriculture (McLaurin 5). The "heyday" of Victorian CBD's in the rural South was limited to a short period of successful cotton expansion between initial settlement and the collapse of the cotton industry by the 1920s. Southern townscapes were restricted by the influence of outside Northern capital and a regional dependency following the war unlike rural areas in other parts of the country (McLaurin 11). Local financial institutions remained important to the development of downtowns and to the expansion of the local economy and the built environment, but were limited by available capital.

The Great Transformation of Rural Townscapes

The advent of the automobile to the rural American landscape brought about the greatest changes in land uses, and in the South exacerbated the failure of cotton based agricultural communities. Land use changed not only internally within towns to accommodate the new machines, but also radically altered the regional framework within which rural communities had evolved. Just as Karl Polanyi identified the great transformation from national economies to a new order of multi-national corporations which dominate world capital and world order (Polyani), so too can we identify the great transformation of relatively autonomous rural economies into regionally dependent extensions of metropolitan centered investment capital.

The automobile made transportation between rural and urban centers easy and led to a concentration of capital and a flow of goods from rural areas to metropolitan centers. Combined with crop failures and "push" factors forcing people to leave rural communities, the attractions of city life and urban employment caused large scale migration and resultant large scale investment which was concentrated in urban centers. Many rural areas of the South experienced population decline or stagnation beginning in the 1920's. The only exceptions were towns which had some unique linkage to urban centers or served as regional markets for goods.

Just as the automobile promoted initial expansion of urban centers, its increased use led to congestion and the eventual desire to escape from the city to areas adjoining urban centers. The result was a large scale exodus from cities and the "suburbanization" of the population. In these suburban settlements individuals could own their home and a small plot of land away from city congestion, yet be within a short commute to urban workplaces and activities. The auto first led to concentration of capital investment in urban centers, and then to its reinvestment on the urban fringe.

Suburban investments featured the conversion of agricultural lands to urban land uses and were tremendously profitable. It was this profitability, the demand for increasing markets, and the potential for low risk investment that made suburban development attractive for investment in the late 50s and 60s. These forces created new forms of commercial land uses. Highway strips of commercial facilities grew along major highways. Each business had access by automobile and the replication of successful businesses through franchise stores, especially fast food and convenience markets, took place throughout suburbia. These facilities emphasized auto access and convenience. Shopping centers which provided major department store shopping with easy auto access were also built and flourished. The development of highway strips and shopping centers was unique from a design standpoint because there was no precedent for design of human values and place. Instead, utility and concerns of the auto overshadowed any concern for human beings. The only concern in dealing with people in this new landscape was attracting them to the businesses, generally accomplished with large signs along the street and the assurance of maximum speed and efficiency in the delivery of goods and services.

The success of these strips and shopping centers in suburban communities led to an examination of rural environments as potential investment areas. The same features that led to suburban investment in prior decades, notably the demand for increasing markets and the influence of mass media advertising by franchise businesses, combined with the relative lack of investment in rural America and the underdevelopment of rural economies and led to a new boom of investment in rural communities in the 70's and 80's.

The recent resurgence in rural development is in part a response from metropolitan-centered capital to recognize the investment or market potential of rural areas. Urban land values increased dramatically during the 50's, 60's, and 70's, making relatively low-cost rural lands attractive to urban investors. The rural areas as marketplaces were also underdeveloped as a result of limited capital investment prior to the 60's. Metropolitan-centered capital investments were made to capture

these markets by financing fast food establishments, fast service "convenience" markets, and small shopping centers. National advertising and marketing stimulated patronage of these "franchise" stores in rural communities. The careful marketing, proven product lines and service of these franchise operations nearly guaranteed successful return on investment. Local financial institutions responded by financing their own franchise or local "convenience" facilities. Traditional rural forms of investment in unique buildings and shops, expansion or redevelopment of downtowns, and maintenance of unique districts became a less viable, more risky investment. The result of these investment strategies is the financing of suburban and urban based franchise commercial businesses along highway strips or in shopping centers in rural communities. This has created a great transformation of the physical form of the rural landscape.

The Human Impact of the Great Transformation

These newly transformed landscapes have resulted in a loss of a unique sense of place, since the emphasis of the new designs is on standardized buildings for auto convenience and service efficiency. Each franchise store, both from the outside and from the inside, looks more or less alike. There is no unique visual identity for persons driving by or using such stores. Yi-Fu-Tuan suggests that "When space feels thoroughly familiar to us, it has become place (73), and it is this unique sense of place which dominated the CBD's of rural America. The transformation of the rural townscape removes this unique sense of place, substituting mass-culture artifacts for unique or distinct buildings. Especially transformed is the role of small towns as a "homeland", which Tuan identifies as having landmarks of high visibility and public significance which "serve to enhance people's sense of identity and encourage awareness and loyalty to place" (159).

Peet suggests that loss of place is "creating increasingly homogeneous adherents to an American based 'ultraculture' out of the previous mosaic of regional and local consciousness" (110). Steele in *The Sense of Place* says:

> *In many instances, modern society is tending to destroy the rich variety of places, replacing them with homogenized "efficient" settings that have no variety, surprise, or traces of their own history or development. They may indeed be efficient for certain tasks . . ., but they offer minimal returns compared with the traditional impact of places as providers of many levels of meaning and experience (8).*

The transformed rural landscape produces changes in the culture and community toward a portrayal of ourselves as members of ultra-cultures.

This great transformation of the rural landscape has critical implications for town planners and rural citizens who might ask "Is there a place for architecture and design within this transformed landscape?" and if so, "What should the role of planners and architects be?" The infusion of capital investment into highway oriented strip commerical or shopping center facilities provides little opportunity for planners to create more than minor site variations in standardized designs. The context for such development beyond an individual parcel of land is extremely limited, and planning regulations beyond minor streetscaping and auto access concerns are unlikely. As strips and shopping centers expand, the imagery of rural America becomes more and more standardized.

Academicians suggest that problems may exist with the development of ultra-culture and the great transformation of rural towns. Steele states:

> *When people are unaware or unappreciative of the ways in which place experiences affect their lives, for better or worse, the places tend not to have much conscious influence on the nature of the experience. People seem to be willing to overlook a poor setting . . . Yet the actual human costs to us of bad place experience can be enormous when accumulated over a lifetime (4).*

What planners and citizens need to seek, yet what the current trend in rural development is moving away from, is the creation of unique and identifiable townscapes. As Tuan states:

> *Place is an organized world of meaning. It is essentially a static concept. If we see the world as a process, constantly changing, we should not be able to develop any sense of place (179).*

Traditional rural townscapes have been static, not changing in nearly a century. The introduction of change alone detracts from this sense of place, and leads toward placelessness, or landscapes which fail to create any unique identity (Relph, *Place and Placelessness*). This placelessness in our rural landscape may simply be the result of our transformed image of reality where through the influence of television we can bring images into our homes from anywhere in the world, and where our imagery and values are in constant flux. Why not have change within the visual images of rural communities to reflect such realities?

Modern rural landscapes, like their urban and suburban counterparts, "are the result of a fusion of technical methods of analysis and construction with philosophies which promote improvements in the efficiency and material conditions of life" (Relph, *Rational Landscapes* 15-16). People become less than human in such a context, and are simply a means to an end—profit. Relph describes this process succinctly:

In the exclusive newness of suburban development, leisure centers, fast-food outlets, shopping malls, international airports, and geometric office blocks, people are treated less as autonomous beings than as pets—they are housed, exercised, fed, cajoled, moved and used. All this, needless to say, is for their own welfare (Relph, Rational Landscapes 16).

The efficiency of fast food and convenience markets in rural communities is traded for the visual quality of the built environment.

The modern rural landscape reflects a change in values, but also a change in regional economic models. of the transformation of rural America is that regional metropolitan interests rather than local capital now dominates the types of development which occur. Change or development in small towns is dependent upon the initial resources of CBD structures and the influence and extent of metropolitan based capital in local economy. As new development increases in rural areas there is additional pressure for auto oriented convenience facilities. Relph states:

So modern landscapes, as probably all former ones, are a dynamic and constantly changing expression of competing interests following more or less conventional strategies which are governed by limiting rules. Modern landscapes are above all an expression of the growing authority of those who hold the largest stakes, namely governments and large corporations. Individuals and communities are allowed only a minor role (Relph, Rational Landscapes 57).

This is the contemporary setting for planning in rural America. The strategies for action are limited and are most dependent upon a critical understanding of the problem.

Assessing the Impact of Change

To understand the impact of this change and the potential role of planners and local citizens in dealing with change, the framework within which development occurs must be examined. Maxine Greene suggests:

There must be critical understanding of the post-industrial society, run as it is by technical men and women "committed to functional rationality and technocratic modes of operations." Individuals must be equipped to reflect upon the knowledge structures we provide, to identify themselves with respect to them, to penetrate their mystiques. They must be equipped as well to reflect upon the erosion of community in this society (122).

One new approach to design taken by Venturi is to redefine what is pleasant or interesting about a landscape from people's popular notions

rather than to apply specific criterion imposed by designers. As Denise Scott Brown writes in her forward to the second edition of *Learning from Las Vegas:*

> *. . . (architects should) reassess the role of symbolism in architecture, and, in the process, learn a new receptivity to the tastes and values of other people and a new modesty in our designs and in our perception of our role as architects in society. Architecture for the last quarter of our century should be socially less coercive and aesthetically more vital than the striving and bombastic buildings of our recent past (Venturi XVII).*

Such a redefining of values according to function may lead to a continuation in the process of constructing more and more efficient buildings without really considering the humanity of the people being designed for. Relph states that such an approach has some benefits in that it:

> *. . . also encourages the development of a greater sensitivity to our visual surroundings, and can offer design proposals to enhance and make more attractive existing landscapes by means consistent with what is there now. Not avenues of trees along commercial strips, but better designs for fast-food outlets and shopping malls and service stations (Rational Landscapes 52).*

This seems to be the direction taken by rural planners and communities. Such an approach may salve the conscience of planners, but leaves their designs and the future of rural America placeless.

Relph suggests a further alternative to the Venturi approach, that of adopting an attitude of environmental humility. Environmental humility is a way of thinking and doing that which respects what exists in the world without denying its essential character or right (Rational Landscapes 19).

> *Environmental humility is marked by a concern for the individuality of places, and this requires a careful and compassionate way of seeing that can grasp landscapes as subtle and changing, and as the expression of the efforts and hopes of the people who made them. To learn this way of seeing we must allow ourselves to be appropriated by environments and situations (Relph, Rational Landscapes 20).*

Such an effort would have planners and community members become sensitized to localism and regionalism of the built environment.

> *. . . it is necessary to teach ourselves to look at what is local and often commonplace before allowing ourselves to become infatuated with exceptional landscapes and grand proposals for their reconstruction. We need to be able to see in detail what people have made of their lives* ***here****, and how this has been claimed as a distinctive place (Relph, Rational Landscapes 195).*

To embrace environmental humility in rural communities means an acceptance of the transformed landscape for what it is, an important part of the form and function or rural life. This is not an unvalued acceptance, however, and within the context of each rural community, designers and citizens must go beyond the landscape of ultra-culture and convenience in an effort to create unique places and community identity as part of development and redevelopment.

Conclusions

Rural communities are in a great transformation. A unique rural sense of place is to some degree being lost, but rural traditions and values are also changing. All citizens have a stake in determining the extent to which we maintain a unique rural identity through the built environment, and to what degree we maintain senses of place in our daily lives. How to preserve or even create this sense of place for the future is not clear. To do this within our modern "ultra-culture" where rural areas are influenced by mass media and franchise development will be difficult. The metropolitan-satellite dominance of urban capital and the influence of mass media creates little room for places, yet when places have been created or preserved they are hailed as the epitome of planning. Somehow the rural American townscape needs to represent the preservation of unique places, not as museums or historical artifacts, but as symbols of our own identity. Even within "ultra-culture" we remain human, linked to only a limited spatial realm, tied but for a short time to places and experiences which may or may not make our lives worth living.

The incorporation of new images and the maintenance of old in creating place represents the relationship between change and changelessness in the rural landscape. Rural America has gone through many changes in form and function, yet it has maintained unique institutions and symbols of place. The great transformation of the rural townscape poses a threat to the unique visual experiences and values of each rural community. Designers, architects and planners as well as the general public must recognize the impact of this transformation and do more than simply build new spaces without a unique identity. We must instead recognize the importance of space which becomes place when it is expressed locally in commonplace forms. Only an attitude of environmental humility can lead to a unique and significant role for rural America in forming the values and symbols of our future.

I would like to thank Miss Charlotte Entrekin for her assistance in the preparation of this manuscript.

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STATUS AND SOCIAL DISTANCE IN THE FACULTY OFFICE: A REPLICATION

by Carole L. Seyfrit and Jacquelyn P. Martin***

A recent study, by Zweigenhaft, concerning personal space in faculty offices used faculty member's choice of desk placement as an indicator of social distance in the faculty-student interaction. Conducted at a small private school, the study indicated that, regardless of sex, professors with higher status (measured by academic rank) would be more likely to create social distance between themselves and their students. The purpose of this study was to partially replicate Zweigenhaft's work using as subjects the faculty of a larger state school and using the variable tenure status in addition to some of those used by Zweigenhaft (529-532).

Although classroom environments have been the focus of experimentation and discussion, little attention has been given to the faculty office environment. Zweigenhaft argued that the type of student-faculty interaction which takes place on a one-to-one basis can be influenced by the environment provided in the faculty office. It is by definition home territory for the professor and alien territory for the student.

According to Sommer and Ball, architectural barriers in the social environment can promote or impede human interaction. Some physical barriers are used as territorial boundaries and indicators of status and power. Korda's examination of the power indicators in the executive office environment suggested that the desk is the ultimate indicator of social distance (36-44). The size, design, and placement of an executive's desk is a broad indicator of prestige, power, and status.

Zweigenhaft indicated that such associations of power and status can be applied to the faculty office as well. Specifically, he hypothesized that faculty members who placed their desk between themselves and their students, thus creating social distance, would be more distant from their students in other ways such as age and status.

Zweigenhaft's study was conducted at a small, private school. Data were collected by asking the 74 faculty members to make sketches of the way they arranged the furniture in their offices. This resulted in an 85 percent response rate. The other 15 percent were eventually sketched by a research assistant. After omitting those faculty members who shared offices, those whose offices doubled as classrooms and those sketches in which desk placement was indecipherable, analysis was conducted on diagrams from

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63 faculty offices. These diagrams were coded based on where the faculty member's desk was placed in relation to the professor's chair and student's chair(s), i.e., either between the teacher and student chairs or not between the teacher and student chairs.

The two groups (desk-between, desk-not-between) were compared across five variables: age, sex, department, status, and student evaluations. No differences in desk placement were found for sex or department, but significant differences were found for status and age. The older professors with higher status (based on academic rank) were more likely to use the desk-between design in their offices. However, faculty members using the desk-not-between design were generally evaluated more highly by students than those using the desk-between design.

Based on the social distance and territoriality literature and the results of Zweigenhaft's work, it was hypothesized that this study, using a larger sample, would produce similar findings. That is, the higher one's status (measured by academic rank and tenure status) the more likely one is to create social distance (as determined by desk placement) in the student-faculty interaction. Comparisons by sex, race, department, school, and whether or not one shared an office were made, but differences in desk placement were not hypothesized.

Method

The 244 full-time faculty members of academic departments (1) at West Georgia College were contacted by letter through campus mail. This letter, from the senior author, explained that a study concerning the use of space in faculty offices was being conducted by sociology students and requested the faculty's cooperation. Professors were told that a student researcher (2) would visit them in their offices during scheduled office hours to ask permission to make a diagram of the office furniture placement. During the following two weeks visits were made to each faculty office where, with permission, a diagram was sketched and researchers noted the sex and race of each professor.

Using Zweigenhaft's procedure, professors were divided into two groups depending on the desk placement in relationship to teacher and student chairs in the diagram. A diagram showing the professor's chair and student's chair separated by the professor's desk was coded as "desk-between". A sketch indicating the desk placed so the student's chair was adjacent to the professor's chair was coded as "desk-not-between." In addition, the variables of sex, race, department, school (Business, Education, Arts and Sciences), tenure status (tenured, not tenured), academic rank (instructor, assistant, associate, or full professor), and number of people sharing the office were coded for each professor.

Of the 244 full-time faculty members included in this project, 199 were successfully contacted and sketches made of their offices. Five faculty members declined participation and forty were not contacted after four attempts. One professor was dropped from the analysis because there was no desk in the office. This left a final sample of 198 or eighty-one percent of the original 244 faculty members.

Results

The sample contained two few minorities to draw any conclusions based on race. No significant differences were found for schools (Business, Education, Arts and Sciences) or departments. Those sharing offices were less likely to use the desk-between arrangement, probably due to space restrictions. However, significant differences in the sharing of offices were not found across department, rank, or tenure status. Therefore, although Zweigenhaft excluded office sharers from his study, they were included in this analysis.

Significant differences were found based on both status variables. Professors with higher academic rank were more likely to use the desk-between arrangement. Table 1 indicates that nearly half of the full professors put their desks between themselves and their students while significantly fewer associate professors, assistant professors, and instructors did so. The difference is also striking when based on tenure status. As shown in Table 2, thirty-seven percent of tenured faculty as opposed to less than eleven percent of nontenured faculty used the desk-between arrangement.

Although both tenure status and academic rank produced significant differences in desk placement, Tables 3 and 4 indicate that these results held only for males. Higher ranking and tenured male professors were more likely to arrange their offices in the desk-between style than were lower ranking and nontenured male professors. However, for female professors, there were no significant differences in desk placement based on academic rank or tenure status.

Discussion

It was hypothesized that the higher one's status, the more likely one would be to create social distance between oneself and one's students. Social distance was measured by placement of the desk in the faculty office. Placing the desk between the faculty and student chairs connoted more social distance than placing the desk to allow the chairs to be adjacent to each other. As predicted, those with higher academic rank and those with tenure were more likely than lower ranking, nontenured faculty members to place a physical barrier, the desk, between themselves and their students, thus creating greater social distance when interacting within the territory of the faculty office. Although physical features of an office

such as the location of doors, windows, and telephones, may affect decisions about desk placement, the diagrams indicated a random distribution of such features. Therefore, as Zweigenhaft concluded, there is some relationship, although not necessarily a causal one, between faculty members' status and the furniture arrangement in their offices.

In opposition to Zweigenhaft's finding of no sex differences in this relationship, this study showed clear differences. Status of female faculty members was unrelated to desk placement. Regardless of status, the overwhelming majority of female professors, like the lower ranking and nontenured male professors, used office arrangements that did not indicate the creation of social distance in student-faculty interactions. Although the status variables in this study were related to faculty status, i.e., academic rank and tenure status, status in our society is also assigned on the basis of sex, i.e., women are accorded lower status than men (Stockard and Johnson).

According to Richardson, people interact with a woman in ways that make this lower status more salient than any higher status she may have such as academic rank or tenure. Studies of nonverbal behavior focusing on the use of space consistently find that women occupy less space in terms of body space, territory, and personal space (Frieze and Ramsey 133-141, Henley). Women may internalize societal cues and, by the way they occupy space, unconsciously communicate low status in social interactions (Frieze et al.

In an effort to understand the sex differences found in this study, the sketches which were coded as desk-not-between were reexamined. Although they clearly fit Zweigenhaft's criterion of allowing adjacent interaction between professor and student, the desk-not-between sketches fell into two distinct groups. The arrangement in the majority of the diagrams showed the desk flush to the wall creating no barrier at all between faculty member and student. However, thirty-three professors arranged their desks in such a way that they gave some indication of a barrier, but the chairs were still arranged to allow adjacent interaction. That is, the desks were either perpendicular to the wall or pulled completely away from it so the faculty chair was behind the desk. However, the student chair was still to the side of the desk and therefore fit Zweigenhaft's definition of desk-not-between.

Twenty-three of the professors with this arrangement were men (15.4 percent of the men in the sample) and ten were women (20.4 percent of the women in the sample). The striking characteristic about these ten women was that seven of them (or 70 percent) were associate or full professors while only nine (or 39 percent) of the twenty-three men were of the same ranks.

As a means of interpreting these findings, informal conversations were conducted with several female professors. After first denying there was any "reason" for their particular arrangement of office furniture, most of the women began talking about how they perceived themselves and how they were perceived by students. One woman summed up the most common sentiment by saying that she did not want to act like the stereotypical, high-status male by sitting behind her desk, but that she wished students would not treat her quite so casually. Another felt students were apt to describe female professors who set themselves apart from their students as more rigid and intolerant than men who did so, and that this prejudice was apparent in student evaluations. Several professors noted that they were less likely to be addressed as "Doctor" or "Professor" by their students than were their male colleagues, even those without doctorates. One said when it comes to deciding how to address professors, students are more likely to assume males have doctorates and assume females do not. Many of the women contacted told stories of sitting in their offices (with their doors clearly labeled) and having students ask if they were the departmental secretary. One women reported feeling "damned if she did and damned if she didn't." If she took a more assertive, more distant stance with her students she was seen as "bitchy", but if she were less assertive and distant she was treated as less competent.

Women in academia, like women in other male dominated professions, are faced with the conflict of not wanting to take on the aggressive, status-oriented stereotypes of successful males, but, if they do not, are treated in terms of their femaleness and not their accomplishments. The number of higher ranking female professors using a desk arrangement which allows them to sit behind their desks, while still allowing adjacent interaction with students, may indicate an effort, be it conscious or unconscious, to resolve this conflict.

In summary, males with higher academic rank or tenure communicate their status by creating greater social distance from students when interacting in the faculty office. However, for women, tenured professors and those with associate or full professor rank may reinforce their lower "female" status by the way they arrange their office furniture.

This study makes no conclusions about the quality of interaction based on desk placement. However, it is clear that higher status is related to social distance between professors and students in the faculty office for males and not for females.

Table 1. Desk Placement by Academic Rank

	Academic Rank			
	Full Professor	Associate Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor
Desk Placement	%	%	%	%
Desk Between	48.3	24.0	12.7	20.0
Desk Not Between	51.7	76.0	87.3	80.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(N)	(35)	(55)	(50)	(35)

Chi Square (df=3)=19.97 p<.001

Table 2. Desk Placement by Tenure Status

	Tenure Status	
	Tenured	Not Tenured
Desk Placement	%	%
Desk Between	37.1	10.8
Desk Not Between	62.9	89.2
Total	100.0	100.0
(N)	(124)	(74)

Chi Square (df=1)=14.84 p=.0001

Table 3. Desk Placement by Academic Rank Controlling for Sex

	Academic Rank							
	Males				Females			
	Full Prof.	Assoc. Prof.	Ass't. Prof.	Inst.	Full Prof.	Assoc. Prof.	Ass't Prof.	Inst.
Desk Placement	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Desk Between	55.1	30.0	15.4	23.8	11.1	—	6.2	14.3
Desk Not Between	44.9	70.0	84.6	76.2	89.9	100.0	93.8	85.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(N)	(49)	(40)	(39)	(21)	(9)	(10)	(16)	(14)

Chi Square (df=3)=17.10 p<.001 Chi Square (df=3)=1.77 n.s.

Table 4. Desk Placement by Tenure Status Controlling for Sex

	Tenure Status			
	Males		Females	
	Tenured	Not Tenured	Tenured	Not Tenured
Desk Placement	%	%	%	%
Desk Between	41.7	15.2	14.3	3.6
Desk Not Between	58.3	84.8	85.7	96.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(N)	(103)	(46)	(21)	(28)
	Chi Square (df=1)=8.88 $p<.01$		Chi Square (df=1)=.69 n.s.	

NOTES

(1) Administrators, part-time faculty, and faculty not listed in academic departments (e.g. librarians) were not included in this study because it was felt that interaction between these faculty members and students would differ in both frequency and type.

(2) In addition to the second author, student researchers working on this project included M. Wade Holland, Samantha J. Thomoson, and Veleta P. Porter.

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ABSTRACTS OF MASTER'S THESES AND SPECIALIST IN EDUCATION PROJECTS

THE EFFECTS OF MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT ON ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT OF FIFTH AND SIXTH-GRADE STUDENTS

Mary Jean G. Adams (EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1984)

The study was conducted to ascertain any effects of maternal employment on achievement of fifth and sixth-grade students at Alabama Street School in Carrollton, Georgia. Five hypotheses were proposed. Data regarding race, sex, achievement score, and maternal employment status for 408 students were analyzed using the Analysis of Variance.

No significant differences in achievement were found for the total population whose mothers were employed as compared to the total population whose mothers were not employed. Futhermore, no significant differences in achievement were found when comparing white students, male students, or female students in terms of their mothers' employment status. The only significance revealed was for black students. Black students whose mothers were employed achieved significantly higher than black students whose mothers were not employed.

THE EFFECTS OF TEACHING PROBLEM-SOLVING STRATEGIES IN CONJUNCTION WITH CALCULATOR USE ON THE MATHEMATICAL PROBLEM-SOLVING ABILITY OF FOURTH-GRADE STUDENTS

Debbie B. Alexander (EdS, Middle Grades Education, December, 1984)

The purpose of the study was to determine if there is a significant difference between the problem-solving ability of students taught problem-solving strategies in conjunction with calculator use as compared to students taught problem-solving strategies without calculator use and students receiving no specific instruction in problem solving.

The subjects of this study consisted of the entire fourth grade at White Elementary School in Bartow County. The treatment consisted of a six-week period during which the treatment group was taught specific problem-solving strategies while using calculators during their instruction and practice. The control group was taught the same strategies, but without calculator use. The comparison group was given no specific instruction in problem solving.

The *Metropolitan Mathematics Test* was administered to all subjects as both the pretest and posttest. Scores from the problem-solving and

computation sections were analyzed. The level at which the null hypotheses would be rejected was set at .05. Both the first null hypothesis, which dealt with problem-solving ability, and the second null hypothesis, which dealt with computational ability, were rejected.

The results of the data from this study indicated that specific problem-solving strategies taught in conjunction with calculator use did result in gain scores that were significantly higher when compared to the gain scores of students only given regular classroom instruction with no emphasis on problem solving. Even though those students who were taught specific strategies had higher gain scores than those given no instruction in problem solving, and those students who used calculators in their instruction has higher gain scores than those taught only the strategies, it was the combination of calculator use and the teaching of specific problem-solving strategies that made the significant difference.

THE EFFECTS OF A PROBLEM-SOLVING STRATEGY UNIT ON THE PROBLEM-SOLVING SKILLS OF FOURTH-GRADE STUDENTS

Judy Gaulding Anderson (EdS, Middle Grades Education, December, 1984)

This study was designed to determine the results of exposure to a unit relative to problem-solving strategies on the problem-solving skills of fourth-grade students.

Subjects for the study were fourth-grade students at Cartersville Elementary School. The subjects were grouped according to their reading levels and considered to be nearly equivalent in their reading levels. The experimental group was composed of 25 students and the control group was composed of 25 students.

The study was conducted over a four week period. The test designed by the mathematical Problem Solving Project constructed at Indiana University was administered as a pretest and posttest. The mean scores were analyzed by analysis of variance.

The results indicated a significant difference at .001 level for the two groups compared. The mean of the total experimental group was significantly higher than then mean of the total control group. The mean of the correct responses in the experimental group was significantly higher than the mean of the correct responses in the control group. The outcome of the analyses of the data resulted in the rejection of both of th hypotheses.

A COURSE OUTLINE FOR THE TEACHING OF MODERN RUSSIAN HISTORY AND COMMUNIST IDEOLOGY FOR SECONDARY STUDENTS

Barbara Baldwin (EdS, Secondary Education, June, 1984)

The purpose of this study was to write, and to give supporting evidence that a need exists for the development of a one quarter course outline for teaching recent Russian history and Communist ideology.

Following a research of the literature dealing with recent Russian history, course content for a one quarter elective course on recent Russian history for social studies students on a secondary level was researched and developed. Preceding the content section is a list of specific objectives. Following the content area is a suggested vocabulary and suggested activities.

Data were gathered to compare the opinions of teachers, parents, and students by asking them to respond to ten statements concerning various aspects of Russian history and Communist ideology on their level of agreement or disagreement with the statements.

Chi squares were computed to determine whether or not actual differences existed among the ratings of the three groups. The results revealed that significant differences existed in the ratings among all these groups in nine of the statements.

Conclusions reached as a result of this study indicated that: (1) although there were significant differences in the manner that each of the three groups responded to the ten statements, no definite pattern was found in these responses, (2) the inconsistency and differences in the responses of the three groups to the ten statements concerning modern Russian history and Communist ideology probably indicated a lack of definite knowledge in this area, (3) a guide was needed, and was developed, for a one quarter course in modern Russian history and Communist ideology.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF COMPREHENSION ACHIEVEMENT OF THIRD-GRADE STUDENTS TAUGHT THROUGH A LEARNING MODALITIES APPRAOCH VERSUS A TRADITIONAL APPROACH

Hellen J. Brown (EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1984)

This study was conducted to determine differences in reading comprehension achievement between a group of students taught through individual learning modalities. Group I was the control group and Group II was the experimental group. The students were taught the skills of cause and effect and drawing conclusions for a period of two weeks.

The students were given a pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest to determine the amount of achievement. The t-test for independent means was used to analyze the results of the posttest and delayed posttest. The results of the comparisons revealed that there was no significant difference at the .05 level of the two groups. The null hypotheses were not rejected.

THE INCLUSION OF FINE ARTS IN THE MIDDLE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Y. Davis Brown (EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1984)

Fine arts are considered to be a valuable portion of an educational program. The problem of this study was to display the importance of the inclusion of the many facets of a fine arts program in the middle school. The study includes a review of the literature and a video tape which displays examples of using the arts to aid a middle school student in interrelating the academics, new-found skills, and interests with the development of self.

The subjects of this study were the four-year fine arts program in Purks School, Cedartown, Georgia; and in an expanded two-year program sponsored by the Cedartown Civic Arts Commission. The program existed for six years, 1976 through 1982.

The experience of the Purks Fine Arts Program and the Cedartwon Fine Arts Program were used in creating a video tape to encourage, inspire, and give ideas to those interested in including the fine arts in the middle school curriculum.

A COMPARISON OF SEVERLY DISTURBED ADOLESCENTS' CONCEPTION OF THE "PERFECT MOTHER" VERSUS THEIR CONCEPTION OF THEIR ACTUAL MOTHER

Joan A. Fuhro (EdS, Special Education, June, 1984)

This study determined if severly disturbed adolescents in a psycho-educational center showed significant difference in their conception of the perfect mother when compared to their conception of their actual mother. Seventeen subjects, ages 14 to 18, from the Burwell Adolescent Program at Central High School, Carrollton, Georgia, were administered the *Elias Family Opinion Survey* (Elias, 1952), an instrument which measures attitudes towards family. The subtest from the *Elias Family Opinion Survey* (Elias, 1952) "Attitudes Towards Mother" was used to determine if there was a significant difference. The instrument was administered twice. The first time the subjects were asked to respond in a manner which reflected their idea of the perfect family. The second time the subjects were asked to respond in a manner which described their actual family. Only the

subtest "Attitudes Towards Mother" was scored. A t-test was used to determine if there was a significant difference in the subjects conception of the perfect mother when compared to their conception of their actual mother.

Analysis of the data revealed that severly disturbed adolescents in a psychoeducational center showed no significant difference in their conception of the perfect mother when compared to their conception of their actual mother.

A SURVEY OF ATTITUDES OF SECONDARY REGULAR CLASSROOM TEACHERS TOWARD MAINSTREAMED HEARING IMPAIRED STUDENTS

Jane Ford Chapman (EdS, Special Education, June, 1984)

The purpose of this study was to determine the attitudes of secondary regular classroom teachers concerning the mainstreaming of hearing impaired students into their classrooms, and to analyze the attitude score of the regular secondary teachers surveyed with respect to type of school program, subject area tuaght, age, sex, number of special education classes taken, degree level obtained, perceived success with hearing impaired students, and perceived availability of support services.

A questionnaire was developed to measure the attitudes of regular secondary classroom teachers toward mainstreamed hearing impaired students. The instrument was in three parts: background information, 20 Likert-type questions related to teachers' attitudes toward mainstreaming hearing impaired students, and additional comments or concerns to the 20 questions. The respondents indicated their response on a scale from "strongly agree, agree, uncertain, disagree, strongly disagree." The questionnaire was sent out to 105 regular secondary teachers.

Sixty-six percent of the questionnaires were completed and returned. The results of the study indicated a positive attitude on behalf of the regular secondary classroom teachers toward mainstreaming of hearing impaired students into regular classrooms. There was no significant difference indicated in the teachers' attitude scores with respect to type of program, subject area taught, age, sex, number of special education classes taken, degree level obtained. However, significant differences with respect to perceived success with hearing impaired students and perceived availability of support services were revealed. This indicated that the higher the perceived success with hearing impaired students and/or perceived availability of support services, the more positive the attitude.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE MATHEMATICS ACHIEVEMENTS FOR SEVENTH GRADE STUDENTS ENROLLED IN INDIVIDUALIZED AND TRADITIONAL MATHEMATICS CLASSES AT WESTSIDE MIDDLE SCHOOL

Patricia M. Chenard (EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1984)

The purpose of this study was to compare the mathematics achievements of seventh-grade students in an individualized mathematics program to seventh-grade students in a traditional mathematics program.

The population of this study consisted of the seventh-grade students attending Westside Middle School during the 1983-84 school year. The subjects of the study were the 83 nontransfer students from the four average and high-average mathematics classrooms. There were 48 students in the individualized group and 35 students in the traditional group. The teachers with similar experience and background each taught a class using the traditional style and one using the individualized program.

The Scott Foresman Achievement Test, Level II, Form A, 1980 edition, was used as the covariate for the analysis of covariance. The Scott Foresman Achievement Test, Level 12, Form A, 1980 edition, was used to collect the data to test the null hypotheses. The level at which the null hypotheses would be rejected was set at .05. The first null hypothesis which deals with methods of instruction was not rejected. The second null hypothesis which deals with instructional preference style was rejected.

The results of the data from this study indicate that there is no significant difference in achievement between students who are in an individualized mathematics program and students who are in a traditional mathematics program. The results sis indicate, however, that students who were placed in the type of program that they prefer, either individualized or traditional, had significantly higher achievement test scores. This seems to indicate a strong possibility for improving achievement by matching students to the program style that they prefer.

A COMPARATIVE EVALUATION OF MATHEMATICS GRADE EQUIVALENT SCORES ON THE PIAT AND WRAT OBTAINED BY ELEMENTARY LEARNING DISABLED STUDENTS

Barbara Griffin Clemons (EdS, Special Education, June, 1984)

This study compared mathematics grade equivalent scores to the Peabody Individual Achievement Test (PIAT) and the Wide Range Achievement Test (WRAT) obtained by 32 learning disabled students in a public school setting in grades four through eight. Subjects ranged in age from 10-0 to 15-8 with a mean age of 13-0. WISC-R Full Scale IQ scores ranged from 75 to 111 with a mean IQ of 90.

Differences in the means (X = 2.1) of the two subtest scores were computed (PIAT X = 6.2; WRAT X = 4.1). A **t** test for nonindependent samples was employed to test the significance of the differences (**t** = 7.32, **p** < .05). The null hypothesis was rejected since scores on the PIAT were significantly higher than scores on the WRAT. A Pearson product moment correlation coefficient (Pearson **r**) was calculated to determine the correlation between the two subtests scores (r = + .50, **p** < .05). Even though the correlation met statistical requirements of significance at the .05 level of confidence, it was not high enough to meet the requirements of prediction.

In view of the findings of this study, it was concluded that there is a significant difference in the PIAT and WRAT mathematics subtests scores among learning disabled students at the elementary level. Even though the correlation of the two tests was statistically significant, the correlation was not high enough for prediction; therefore, it was also concluded that the mathematics subtest scores of the PIAT and WRAT at these grade levels should not be used interchangeably.

THE CORRELATION BETWEEN ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT, COGNITIVE SKILLS, AND SELF-CONCEPT OF HANDICAPPED AND NONHANDICAPPED THIRD AND FIFTH GRADERS

Ann Coughlan-Roote (EdS, Special Education, August, 1984)

The purpose of this study was to determine if there were a significant relationship between self-concept and four specific areas of academic achievement: (1) reading, (2) spelling, (3) language, and (4) mathematics. A second purpose was to determine if there were a significant relationship between self-concept and four specific areas of cognitive skills: (1) sequence, (2) memory, (3) analogies, and (4) verbal reasoning. A third purpose was to determine the degree of relationship between all areas, each with the other.

The sample consisted of 42 third grade students and 26 fifith grade students. There were 21 handicapped and 21 non-handicapped third graders; 13 handicapped and 13 nonhandicapped fifth graders. The handicapped students had been identified and placed in the least restrictive environment by the school system.

In order to measure academic achievement, all students were administered the Comprehensive Tests of Basic Skills (McGraw-Hill, 1981). The Test of Cognitive Skills (McGraw-Hill, 1981) was administered to measure cognitive skills. All students were administered the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale (Piers & Harris, 1969) to measure self-concept.

Data was analyzed with analyses of variance and Pearson coefficient correlations. Data indicated significant relationships between self-concept and all academic achievement areas and only the cognitive skill of analogies for nonhandicapped third graders. No significant relationships between self-concept and any area for handicapped third graders, nonhandicapped or handicapped fifth graders were found.

A STUDY COMPARING ACHIEVEMENT AND RETENTION OF LAB AND NONLAB STUDENTS IN A POSTSECONDARY AREA VOCATIONAL-TECHNICAL SCHOOL

Michael J. Coulon (EdS, Secondary Education, March, 1985)

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of developmental studies on academically disadvantaged students who majored in a business occupation program at a postsecondary area vocational technical school during 1977-1982 academic sessions. Two major questions were asked in the analysis of data:

1. How do business education majors' English grades differ in percentage rankings for lab students compared with those of nonlab students?

2. How do business education major lab students compare with nonlab students in percentages of students completing their business occupation programs?

A total of 710 students was included in the study with lab students accounting for 13 percent of the population and nonlab students accounting for 87 percent. The grades for all students who took English A and English B were gathered and arranged according to groups. An analysis of the grades was made on the basis of percentages receiving grades **A, B, C, D,** and **F**. In addition, a comparison was made of the percentage of each group receiving a grade of **C** or better. Finally, totals of completers and noncompleters were calculated for lab and nonlab students, converted to percentages, and compared.

Analysis of the data indicated that nonlab students tend to attain higher grades as a group than do the lab students but that the lab students tended to pass their English courses at rates comparable to those of nonlab students. Analysis of completion data indicated that lab students completed regular programs at rates comparable to those of nonlab students.

Conclusions drawn from the analysis of the data suggest that developmental education is effective in helping the academically disadvantaged student achieve educational goals, i.e., completion of regular occupational programs. Although as a group their grades may not

be as high as those of nonlab students, lab students pass English courses at high rates and come within a few percentage points of achieving the same completion rates as those of nonlab students.

HUMANISTIC PSYCHOLOGY AS APPLIED IN THE LIFE OF THE CHURCH

John F. Cox (MA, Psychology, August, 1984)

The question arises today, are the different components of life ready for Humanistic Psychology and all that implies, or how well is the humanistic approach assimilated into education, business, Christianity, social services, other psychologies, etc?

I will show Humanistic Psychology at work within the framework of my parish. My own expansion in thought, religious ideals, and good human relationships hopefully will be evident in this paper. The acceptance of my humanistic appraoch will be determined by the evaluation of the parish response. My thesis will show that Humanistic Psychology can be effectively lived and used in the life of the church, but possibly not without resistance. Even if resistance is encountered, I cannot evade what I'm perceiving as personal development and a good educational, spiritual model for others.

CASE STUDIES OF GIFTED EARLY READERS: A SEARCH FOR COGNITIVE, AFFECTIVE, AND ENVIRONMENTAL CHARACTERISTICS WITHIN THE INDIVIDUAL AND THE GROUP

Nancy Chesser Crider (EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1984)

The purpose of this study was to identify cognitive, affective, and environmental charactersitics of a group of students who were certified to be preschool readers and who have also been identified as being gifted. Eight students were interviewed. Their classroom interactions were analyzed by sociograms. They were given test to rate their behavior profiles, personality types, and their attitudes toward reading. Their parents were interviewed to find out what effect their parents had on their learning to read. The family structures, family interactions and parental opinions of the gifted early reader's attitudes, abilities and behaviors were ascertained by both interview and written questionnaire.

The study showed that most of the children had common traits, but there were exceptions to every trend. Some particularly outstanding findings were: (1) all of the children were read to starting at an early age, (2) the mother was the family member most influential in the child's

acquistion of reading skills, (3) all of the children had appropriate reading materials available at an early age, and (4) siblings reared in similar environments did not acquire reading skills early.

A CORRELATIONAL STUDY OF SELECTED FACTORS RELATED TO BIOLOGY GRADES

John D. Dunn (EdS, Secondary Education, December, 1984)

Screening of students for an advanced Biology I course is a current problem at Central High School in Newnan, Georgia. This study is an attempt to identify those factors in a student's record which will make it possible to predict his chances of success in a Biology I course for accelerated students. The subjects are 101 Biology I students in Central High School in the Coweta County School System during the spring semester of 1984. The Biology I semester grades of students were correlated with five selected factors. These were the eighth grade mathematics grade, eighth grade science grade, the mathematics and verbal scores on the eighth grade Georgia Criterion Referenced Test, and the score on the Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test. The null hypothesis stated that there would be no significant correlation between each factor and the Biology I grades. The factors were correlated with the subjects' Biology I grades using a six variable multicorrelational analysis. The level of significance at which the null hypothesis would be rejected was established at the .05 level. The correlation coefficient at which the correlation was considered useful for predictive purposes was established at .4.

The null hypotheses were rejected in two cases. The eighth grade science grade and the eighth grade mathematics grade were found to be significantly correlated for science was .5467 at $p = .001$. The eighth grade mathematics grade had a coefficient of correlation of .4499 at $p = .001$.

An analysis of variance was computed for the mathematics and science grades by the Biology I grades using the intelligence scores as a covariate. This showed significant relationship between the variation in mathematics and science grades in the eighth grade and variations in the Biology I grades.

A multiple classification analysis showed that the mathematics grade accounted for 23% and the science grade accounted for 33% of the Biology I grade.

For this sample, the eighth grade science and mathematics course grades were found to be useful predictors for determining the scores of students in a high school Biology I course.

EVALUATION OF A PROGRAM TO CHANGE NONHANDICAPPED FOURTH GRADE STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARD THE HANDICAPPED

Cynthia M. Estes (EdS, Special Education, June, 1984)

This study assessed the effectiveness of the program, *Understanding Handicaps*, in changing the attitudes of nonhandicapped fourth grade students toward their handicapped peers. Eighty-three students in Troup County Georgia schools participated in the study. Prior to treatment, students were administed the *Peer Attitudes Toward the Handicapped Scale* (PATHS). Students then participated in the program, *Understanding Handicaps*, developed by the investigator. Following three weeks of treatment, students were again administed PATHS. Analysis of the posttest scores yielded the following results: attitude measures toward students with physical handicaps increased to the .000 level of significance; change in attitude toward students with behavioral problems was significant to the .039 level; and the increase in total test scores was significant to the .003 level of significance. The study concluded that the program *Understanding Handicaps* may be used with students to bring about more positive attitudes toward their handicapped peers.

RESTRICTIVE-UNRESTRICTIVE AN IDENTIFICATION OF SELF

Gregory C. Gurley (MA, Psychology, December, 1984)

Questions have arisen regarding the ambiguity of the usage of the term Energy within this paper. It has been suggested that I be more specific in my defining of this word Energy. Energy has the capacity for a number of diversified functions, e.g., mechanical, physical, emotional, biological, philosophical, and spiritual, etc., but the term Energy can not be seen particularly as any one of these. Energy as a concept can only be understood in terms of what it is not, in terms of the undefined. Perhaps, as study develops, we of the western world can find better terminology to suit our concepts, but until that time I am at a loss regarding the redefinition of the concept behind my usage of the term Energy. It is best suited for this attempted description of the process of creativity. When reading this work your reading may be facilitated by substituting the word Energy with the following terms which I consider to be synonymous with Energy; Self and Essence.

A COMPARISON STUDY OF THE FORMAL DEDUCTIVE AND GUIDED DISCOVERY METHODS OF INSTRUCTION FOR HIGH SCHOOL GEOMETRY

Frank Hall (EdS, Secondary Education, June, 1984)

The purpose of this study was to determine whether there is a difference in achievement of students being taught geometry by the formal deductive method as compated to the guided discovery method.

It was hypothesized that students taught by the discovery method would achieve at the same level as would students taught by the formal deductive method.

The subjects for this study were the two intact geometry classes at Fairmount High School. These classes included 27 tenth graders and 14 eleventh graders. The only difference in the treatment of the two classes was that one was taught by the formal deductive method, while the other was taught by the guided discovery method.

The Comprehensive Assessment Program, High School Subject Tests, Geometry was used in the study as both the pretest and the posttest. The posttest data were analyzed using the analysis of covariance to test the null hypothesis. The null hypothesis was not rejected at the .05 level of significance.

It was concluded in this study that geometry students would achieve at the same level using either the formal deductive method or the guided discovery method.

THE EFFECTS OF TWO TEACHER DELIVERY MODELS IN THE READING AND MATHEMATICS ACHIEVEMENT OF MIDDLE GRADE REMEDIAL STUDENTS

Phyllis Hart (EdS, Special Education, August, 1984)

This study compared the effects of two teacher delivery models, (1) team-teaching and (2) resource room, on the reading and mathematics achievement of middle grade remedial students.

Four groups of fifth and sixth grade remedial reading or remedial mathematics students (90 students in all) from a rural area in mid-western Georgia were the subjects. The study extended over a three-year period. The first year all subjects were given remedial instruction using the team-teaching delivery model. The second and third years all subjects were taught using the resource room delivery model. A reading or mathematics achievement test administered at the beginning of each school year as a pretest and again at the end of each school year as a posttest. The pretest and posttest scores of all students were subtracted to determine

achievement for each school year. The achievement scores of all students under the two delivery models were compared using the t-test, analysis of paired variates.

The results of the study indicated that reading achievement was not significantly affected by delivery model. Mathematics achievement was significantly improved for one group and approached significance for the other group. When delivery model remained constant, no significant difference in achievement was noted.

THE EFFECTS OF ECRI GRAMMAR TECHNIQUES ON THE NUMBER OF GRAMMATICAL ERRORS MADE BY ELEMENTARY STUDENTS

Charlotte R. Hester (EdS, Reading, December, 1984)

The purpose of this study was to determine if elementary students at College Street SChool who were taught grammar for five minutes a day using Exemplary Center for Reading Instruction (ECRI) techniques made fewer grammatical errors in creative writing than did elementary students who were taught grammar by conventional methods for 15 minutes daily.

The treatment variable in this study had two levels, the control and the experimental. A pretest and posttest, each consisting of a 20 minute period of time in which every student did creative writing on a topic of his choice, was administered to all students involved in the study.

The control group was taught grammar using conventional methods in a time frame of 15 minutes of instruction daily. ECRI grammar techniques were used with the experimental group in a time frame of five minutes of instruction daily.

Two dependent variables (capitalization and end-of-sentence punctuation) contributed to the total errors which served as the third dependent variable. Then 15 t-tests were computed on the dependent variables for the control group and experimental group. The purpose of the t-tests was to determine whether there were or were not significant differences between the percentages gain between pre-test and posttest errors for the two different groups. The t-tests also compared the experimental groups boys with the control group boys, the experimental group girls with the control group girls, the experimental group black students with the control group black students, and the experimental group white students with the control group white students.

The results showed that there are significant differences between some of the dependent variables of the experimental group and the control group. Overall, the experimental group made a significantly greater percentage of errors in the areas of punctuation and total scores than did the control

group. Specifically, the experimental group (boys) made a significantly greater percentage of errors in the areas of punctuation and total scores than did the control group (boys). The experimental group (white students) made a significantly greater percentage of errors in the areas of punctuation and total scores than did the control group (boys). The punctuation and total scores than did the control group (white students), and were the only group to show significance in the area of capitalization. The experimental group (white students) made a greater percentage of capitalization errors than did the control group (white students).

Based on the .05 level of significance, six of the 15 hypotheses were rejected. The hypotheses for percentage gain in errors in punctuation and total scores for the experimental group, the experimental group (boys), and the experimental (white students) were significantly higher than they were for the corresponding control groups. The percentage gain in errors for capitalization and total scores for the experimental group (white students) was significantly higher than it was for the corresponding control group. Further studies in this area are strongly recommended.

AN ATTITUDINAL STUDY MEASURING THE EFFECTS OF TEAMS-GAMES-TOURNAMENTS AT THE FIFTH GRADE LEVEL UPON STUDENTS ACHIEVEMENT IN AND INTEREST TOWARD THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Jo Ann H. Huggins (EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1984)

This study was designed to determine the effect, if any, the Teams-Games-Tournaments appraoch would have on social studies achievement and attitude.

Subjects used in this study were two heterogeneous fifth-grade classes in Chatsworth, Georgia. During the two-month instructional period, the experimental group was taught social studies using the TGT appraoch, while the control group was taught social studies using the traditional method only. The treatment period was 45 minutes each school day for both classes. Each group comprised 28 students giving a total of 56 participants completing the experiment.

The pretest and posttest for social studies achievement was the fifth grade standardized test from the text, *The United States and the Other Americas.* The pretest and posttest for social studies attitude were written by the investigator based on the Dutton Scale (Stright's Modification). The acheivement testing for the experimental group was administered by the investigator, while the testing for the control group was administered by the control group teacher. The social studies attitude test was administered to the two groups by the assistant principal.

The Analysis of Covariance was used to analyze the data for the achievement test while the Analysis of Variance was calculated between the two groups in order to determine the difference in attitude. Two null hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance. Both were rejected by data collected in this study. The significance of the F ratio in social studies achievement and attitude did indicate a significant difference, with the experimental group having a higher mean.

From this study it was concluded that Teams-Games-Tournaments is a valuable new approach worthy of consideration by educators.

It was recommended that further research be conducted using TGT under varying conditions to see if the same relationships exist.

PHENOMENOLOGICAL STUDY OF THE PSYCHOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF VICTIMIZATION BY AIDS

Don R. Hughey (MA, Psychology, June, 1984)

The phenomenological experience of being victimized by acquired immune deficiency syndrome was investigated. It was hypothesized that victimization of AIDS patients is a labeling and not necessarily a lived experience of the individual's eigenwelt (own world body experience). Subjects were selected on the basis of volunteer referral from AIDS-help groups in the United States (San Francisco/Atlanta). All subjects were caucasian homosexual males between the ages of 23 and 30, held mean incomes of $18,000/year prior to AIDS, reported average of 700 anonymous sexual contacts prior to diagnosis, and had been aware of their immunodeficient condition from 2 weeks to 3 years. One immunosuppressive patient was included as a control measure of "the before." Their world experience was determined by means of the phenomenological qualitative analysis of contextualized clinical interviews, which lasted about an hour and a half, and were condcuted in a Rogerian-like reflective milieu. Data were interpreted following the general outlines for phenomenological empirical research as described by Giorgi (1975) and Wertz (1983). It was found that "secondary victimization" in AIDS patients is the result of an outside agency/community and not an accepted world of their eigenwelt. Three basic types of AIDS patients were distinguished, namely the "AIDS-apathy", "AIDS-eager", and "AIDS-defensive", existing in a hierarchical paradigm of adaptivity. Most notable was the observation that sex is perceived as the predominate agency of victimization by AIDS patients from this group and that a thematic unawareness predominates their coping strategies. It was also observed that AIDS patients have an extended and lengthy retreat phase in their coping response to terminality. The theoritical implications of these data were also discussed.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF PERSONALITY PROFILES OF A SAMPLE OF ADULT PRACTICAL NURSING STUDENTS VERSUS A SAMPLE OF ADULT COSMETOLOGY STUDENTS

Stephen J. Jennings (EdS, Secondary Education, August, 1984)

Cattell's Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire was administered to 25 licensed practical nursing students and 22 cosmetology students enrolled at Carroll County Area Vocational Technical School during spring quarter, 1984, to determine whether differences in personality profile exist between adult students enrolled in the respective occupational programs. Literature revealed the belief that personality is a changing phenomenon and that maturation and other life processes affect changes in personality. Consequently, in order to determine whether differences in personality profile exist between younger and older students, the total sample was divided into a group of students over 29 years of age (n = 19) and a group of students under 29 years of age (n = 28). Multivariate analysis with group as independent variable and each of the sixteen personality factors as dependent variables was utilized to statistically analyze the data in each instance.

Findings indicated that the practical nursing students were significnatly more self-sufficient than were the cosmetology students and that younger students were significantly more conscientious, were less self-sufficient, and had less undisciplined self-conflict than did their older school mates.

A STUDY OF THE PERSONALITY DISTRIBUTION OF LEARNING DISABLED STUDENTS AT PEPPERELL HIGH SCHOOL

Charles Wallace Kelley (EdS, Special Education, August, 1984)

This study was conducted in order to determine if there was a significant difference in the personality distribution of the learning disabled students and the regular students of Pepperell High School. The personality factor strength of each group was determined by administering the Junior-Senior High School Personality Questionnaire, commonly referred to as the 16 P.F. Personality Inventory. Fourteen factor scores were interpreted and evaluated in accordance with established procedures using sten score averages and individual profile sheets. There were 57 subjects involved; 29 learning disabled and 28 regular students. The results showed that while the study group averaged just below the normal group, the scores were not in the significance level defined by the test itself. The below average scores may be correlated to certain substandard behavioral tendencies but not at the level which distinguishes them from the normal student.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE PERCEPTIONS OF SELECTED EDUCATORS FROM FIVE COUNTIES OF WEST CENTRAL GEORGIA TOWARD THE ROLES AND RESPONSIBLITIES OF THE RESOURCE ROOM TEACHER

Alice Wilkinson Kirby (EdS, Special Education, August, 1984)

This study was conducted to determine the perceptions of principals, classroom teachers, and resource room teachers from elementary schools in the West Georgia CESA area toward the roles and responsibilities of the resource room teacher. An original questionnaire containing 25 statements regarding the duties and responsibilities of the resource teacher was mailed to 52 principals, 52 resource room teachers, and 156 classroom teachers. Forty principals, 33 resource room teachers, and 103 classroom teachers completed and returned the questionnaire. The results were analyzed by an ANOVA analysis of variance to determine if a significant difference existed in the perceptions of the three groups of slelected educators. Results indicate that significant difference exists in perceptions toward six of the 25 stated duties of the resource room teacher. These duties pertained to the functions of referral and placement, assessment and evaluation, and communication.

A COMPARISON USING CLOZE PROCEDURES AND TRADITIONAL TEACHING METHOD WITH FOURTH GRADE SCIENCE STUDENTS

Linda Dukes Kiser (EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1984)

The two-fold purpose of this study was to determine if a relationship existed between measured science achievement and two instructional systems for delivering science concepts and to determine the readability of the science textbook by the students using it.

It was hypothesized there would be no significant difference between the science posttest scores of those students taught science using the cloze procedures with discussion and those scores of students taught by the traditional method. It was hypothesized there would be no significant difference between the science posttest scores of those students at the frustrational level in the experimental group and the scores of those students at the frustrational level in the control group. It was hypothesized there would be no significant difference between the science posttest scores of those students at the instructional level in the experimental group and those scores of students at the instructional level in the control group. It was further hypothesized there would be no significant difference between the posttest scores of the female students in the experimental group and control group nor would there be any difference in the posttest scores of the male students in the experimental group and control group.

The sample used in the study consisted of 43 fourth-grade science students randomly selected for two fourth-grade baseroom classes for the 1983-1984 school year. The subjects were divided into a control group receiving science instruction by the traditional method, and an experimental group receiving science instruction by the use of cloze procedure with discussion.

The data gathering instruments were a pre-posttest, a cloze test constructed from a passage from the students' science textbook and a cloze test battery. The t-test for independent means was used to test the posited hypotheses. The .05 level of significance was used as the criterion for testing all hypotheses.

The analysis of the data from the experiment which generated five hypotheses using the cloze procedure yielded the following results. Two hypotheses were not rejected. There was no significant difference between the science posttest scores of those students reading their textbook at the frustrational level in the experimental group and those of the students at the frustrational level in the control group. There was no significant difference between the posttest scores of the male students in the experimental group and those of the male students in the control group.

Three hypotheses were rejected. There was a significant difference between the science posttest scores of the students in the experimental group and those of the students in the control group. There was a significant difference between the science posttest scores of those students at the instructional level in the experimental group and those of the instructional level in the control group. There was a significant difference between the posttest scores of the female students in the experimental group and those of the female students in the control group.

It appeared that a negative relationship existed between the use of the cloze procedure for science instruction and measured achievement gain in science for the sample used in the study.

IDENTIFICATION AND PREVALENCE OF SECONDARY HANDICAPPING CONDITIONS OF RUBELLA-DEAFENED YOUTH AND NON-RUBELLA DEAFENED YOUTH IN THE COBB COUNTY SCHOOL SYSTEM

Gail Bennett Meacham (EdS, Special Education, June, 1984)

The purpose of this study was to investigate the secondary handicapping conditions of rubella-deafened youth and non-rubella-deafened youth in the Cobb County School System.

A questionnaire was sent to parents and teachers of the 126 hearing impaired students enrolled in the Cobb County School System's Imapired

Hearing Program requesting information regarding cuase of deafness and any secondary handicaps that might accompany the diagnosed hearing impairment. A study of each student's case history was also completed to determine the cause of deafness and any accompanying handicaps. The data were determined by a Chi-square analysis of the frequency of the occurrence of additional disorders in the rubella-deafened subjects versus the non-rubella-deafened subjects. The probability of .05 was utilized as being significant.

The results of the study indicated that the presence of secondary handicapping conditions in rubella-deafened youngsters was found to be significant in emotional disturbance, visual problems, physical problems and other miscellaneous problems. Secondary handicapping conditions did not appear to be significant in regard to rubella-deafened subjects in the areas of behavioral disorders, mental retardation, learning disabilities and blindness.

It can be concluded from the study that secondary handicapping conditions occurred more frequently in rubella-deafened subjects in four of the disabilities investigated. Further analysis of the data would be necessary to determine implications regarding severity of the secondary hanicaps and the significance of the additional handicap(s) on educational achievement and daily living skills.

THE EFFECT OF A THERAPEUTIC HORSEBACK RIDING PROGRAM ON THE SELF-CONCEPT OF FEMALE ADOLESCENTS WHO ARE MODERATELY MENTALLY RETARDED

Susan Michael (EdS, Special Education, December, 1984)

This study was conducted in order to determine the effect of a therapeutic horseback riding program on the self-concept of moderately mentally retarded, female adolescents. There were 20 subjects in the study. The ten subjects in the treatment group received therapeutic horseback riding instruction. The ten subjects in the control group received no instruction. Self-concept was measured by administering the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and the Primary Self-Concept Inventory. The data was analyzed and interpreted through an analysis of covariance. No significant difference was found in self-concept between the control group and the treatment group was measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. A significant difference was found in self-concept between the control group and the treatment group as measured by the Primary Self-Concept Inventory.

A STUDY OF THE IMPACT MADE BY EARLY EDUCATIONAL INTERVENTION ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF YOUNG CHILDREN

Ellen Marie Moore (EdS, Early Childhood Education, December, 1984)

The Preschool Development Program is operated by the Dade County School System of Dade County, Georgia, for children from birth to five years of age and their parents. The program serves both average and handicapped children in this school system of twenty-three hundred students. The handicapped children receive one home visit a week and come to the Parent-Child Center if possible. The average children come with their parents to the center once a week. A demonstration lesson is provided and parents after evaluating their child choose the lesson they will teach their child during the week.

In this study the children who participated in the Preschool Development Program were the experimental group. The control group was a random sample of children in the school system's kindergarten, first, and second grades who were not in the program. The instruments used in the study were the MEMPHIS Comprehensive Development Scale used as pre and post test for children in the Preschool Development Program, the Denver Developmental Screening Test as the pre kindergarten assessment, the Georgia Kindergarten Criterion Reference Test as the post kindergarten evaluation, and the Georgia First and Second Grade Criterion Reference Tests for post evaluations.

The study had four purposes: first, to investigate the effect of Preschool Development Program has on reducing the number of children that qualify for the Improvement Program (remedial program in Reading/Language Arts and Mathematics); second, to research the effect the Preschool Development Program has on the readiness of children to enter kindergarten at an adequate developmental level; third, to study the gains made by the children in the Preschool Development Program to determine if the gains are sustained through kindergarten, first and second grades; and fourth, to compare the development of the children entering the Preschool Development Program at one month to thirty months of age compared to the children entering at thirty-one to sixty months of age.

Descriptive analysis showed that the control group (children not attending the Preschool Development Program) required significantly more remediation in the area of mathematics compared to the experimental group (children who attended the Preschool Development Program). In the Denver Developmental Screening Test the experimental group had significantly fewer developmental delays in the areas of personal-social, fine motor, language, and gross motor skills than the control group. The children in the experimental group obtained a

significantly greater number of objectives on the Georgia Kindergarten Criterion Reference Test compared to the children in the control group in the areas of speaking, reading, writing, and numbers and numeration. In the Georgia First Grade Criterion Reference Test the experimental group obtained significantly more objectives in both reading and mathematics than the control group. The number of objectives obtained in reading on the Georgia Second Grade Criterion Reference Test was significantly greater for the experimental group entering the Preschool Development Program between the ages of one month to thirty months did not show significantly greater developmental gains than those experimental children entering the program between thirty-one to sixty months of age.

The educational leaders of today in the fast changing stage of "schooling" should be knowledgeable about the impact made by the early intervention with parents and children in the positive development of young children. Curriculum should be developed, teachers trained and environments planned to provide experiences where children and their parents can develop to their greatest potential. Further research is recommended to investigate three areas: first, the effect the program has on the parents; second, the extension of the longitudinal study; and third, the effects of early entry into preschool programs using standardized instruments administered by the teacher.

THOMAS HARDY: MUSIC IN THE MAN AND HIS NOVELS

Bonnie W. Nipper (MA, English, June, 1984)

Thomas Hardy was a writer whose lifelong appreciation of music enriched not only his life but found an expression in his major novels as well. References to music of all types, from the ballads of his native Dorchester to Italian operas, were used extensively in his novels. Musical terminology was employed frequently to describe characters, nature, and even to establish moods. Hardy's expert knowledge of instruments was illustrated in each of the seven novels studied and used not only as a means of description, but also as a very real part of the Wessex culture which provide the novel's setting.

A study was done of his life through several biographies and other references to his musicianship to establish the extent of Hardy's musical background. The musical references in each novel were catalogued to discover how Hardy used music to enrich his novels. Novels used in this study included *Under the Greenwood Tree* (1872), *Far From the Madding Crowd* (1874), *The Return of the Native* (1878), *The Mayor of Casterbridge* (1885), *The Woodlanders* (1887), *Tess of the D'Urbervilles* (1891), and *Jude the Obscure* (1895).

Following is the plan of my thesis:

1. The importance of music in Thomas Hardy's life
2. His use of musical terms in describing the physical appearance of Wessex
3. His use of the musical culture of Wessex
4. His use of musical terms in the characterization of his major and minor characters

THE EFFECTS OF AUDITORY AND VISUAL LEARNING STYLES OF HEARING IMPAIRED CHILDREN ON VOCABULARY ACQUISITION

Gayle Couch Owen (EdS, Special Education, June, 1984)

The purpose of this study was to assess the effects of auditory and visual learning styles of hearing impaired children on vacabulary acquisition.

Nine hearing impaired students from the Total Communication Impaired Hearing Program of the DeKalb County School System participated in the study. Selection criteria for the subjects included: (1) Presence of a hearing loss which interferes with the acquisition or maintenance of auditory skills necessary for the development of speech, language, and academc achievement (Georgia Department of Education, 1983). (2) A hearing loss which was congenital. (3) Chronological age between 9.0 years and 14.0 years (4) Visual acuity in the normal range of functioning. (5) No evidence of previous consideration (including testing) of student's preferred learning style in reference to instruction.

A Self-Inventory and Teacher Observation Checklist were used to assess the auditory or visual learning style of each subject. The subjects were given a pre-test for word meaning and word usage of ten vocabulary words, given instruction on these words using visual methods, and given a post-test at the completion of the instruction. The procedure was repeated using auditory methods of instruction. The gains in word usage and word meaning for each method of instruction were compared to the assessed learning style of each subject to determine if the subjects acquired vocabulary more efficiently through instruction matched to their assessed learning style.

An analysis of the study revealed that 50% of the auditory learners did acquire vocabulary more efficiently through auditory instruction, and 30% of the visual learners acquired vocabulary more efficiently through visual instruction. The results pointed to the necessity for individual assessment for hearing impaired students. Instruments need to be developed which will accurately assess the preferred learning style of young hearing impaired children. Teacher training programs and inservice programs

must take the responsibility for making teachers aware of the importance of individual assessment and program planning.

THE EFFECT OF COMPUTER BASED INSTRUCTION WITH TEACHER-MADE SOFTWARE VERSUS TRADITIONAL METHODS OF EDUCATION ON THE ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT OF SPECIAL NEEDS STUDENTS

Martha P. Ramsey (EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1984)

This study was designed to determine if computer based instruction with teacher-made software would produce significantly higher test scores on post tests by special needs students. A comparison was made between students utilizing the computer and students being taught by the traditional method of pencil and paper.

Subjects used in this study were fifth and sixth-grade special needs students from the self-contained remedial class of Fayetteville Elementary School. The 24 students were divided into two groups. The two groups were assumed to be equivalent in regard to race, sex, age and socioeconomic background. All 24 students were achieving one or more years below grade level.

The first group of special needs students received the first three units of instruction concerning "Universe and Greek Myths" utilizing computer and teacher-made software. The second group receives the exact same lessons through the traditional method of pencil and paper. The two groups were swapped for the last three units of instruction. Group one then received instruction by pencil and paper while group two used computer. Each of the six units was followed by a 10 question post test with multiple choice answers.

The mean score was determined for each unit of instruction, for the total of units 1, 2 and 3 as well as the total of units 4, 5, and 6 for each of the two groups. The t-test was used to analyze the data. The null hypothesis was tested using the .05 level of significance. No significant difference was found in favor of computer based instruction. However, the mean scores of six of the eight results showed computer based instruction to have been more effective for special needs students than the traditional method of instruction.

AGE AS A RELATIVE FACTOR IN MASLOW'S CONCEPT OF SELF-ACTUALIZATION

Harold Restein (MA, Psychology, March, 1985)

An ex post facto research study was carried out in South Africa during 1982 utilizing the Shostrom Personality Inventory (P.O.I.) to determine

the self-actualizing tendencies of Doctors and Pharmacists.

100 Doctors and 100 Pharmacists were requested to complete the Shostrom Personality Orientation Inventory (P.O.I.) to determine their degree of self-actualization.

58 Doctors and 47 Pharmacists completed the questionnaire, and the results were analysed using the BMDP (6R) computer package.

The age categories of the responding Doctors and Pharmacists were classified into

(a) Under 30 years old
(b) 5 year groupings between 30 and 64 years old
(c) Over 64 years old

Since the Inner Directed (I) score of the P.O.I. is considered by Shostrom and shown by Damn to be the best predictors of an overall measure of self-actualizing tendencies, the above age categories were tabulated against the mean Inner Directed (I) scores of the respondents. This analysis revealed an anomaly in that, as the Doctors age increased their (I) scores decreased, while in the case of the Pharmacists, as their age increased, so did their (I) score.

This result is not consistent with Maslow's stated view that self-actualizing should be confined "very definitely to older people." It is suggested that perhaps what is meant by full maturity does not necessarily depend on chronological age, but that one can be seen to mature in differing environmental roles at differing times.

This conclusion tends to support Mischel and the Interactionist view of personality, that is is more important to relate environmental changes to behavioural changes than it is to attempt to establish general rules that will apply to all circumstances.

THE EXPERIENCE OF INCEST: CHILDHOOD VICTIMS IN LATER LIFE

Ruth B. Skaggs (MA, Psychology, December, 1984)

Incestous sexual activities are not a new social phenomenon, but it is only within the last decade that they have begun to receive widespread attention. State reporting laws have contributed to greater disclosure by victims. At any rate, as the secrets come out ot hiding, we are beginning to realize that incest is, and has been, occurring at alarming rates. Previous estimates of incidence are now considered by most to be highly underestimated. The Child Assault Prevention Project of Women Against Rape (1983) estimates that one out of every four girls and one out of every seven to eleven boys are sexually assualted at least once before the age of

18. Of these assaults 75% of the victims are attacked by someone they know and trust.

A study carried out by Rosenfeld (1979) among 18 female psychiaric patients disclosed incest history in one-third of the patients. Forward and Buck (1978) report a 1969 study showing one in every 10 women victims of incestuous molestations. This is based on reported cases. It is believed by most researchers that underreporting has kept the estimates lower than actual numbers of incidence.

It can no longer be denied that incest is a major problem in contemporary society. This study is not an attempt to prove rate of incidence. other studies have documented the statistics; rather, this research is designed to explore the experience of incest as it is lived by its victims, to elucidate the experience, to determine the meanings from the experience itself. Such a study is needed precisely because it is this perspective that has been neglected by traditional research. "Little empirical research has been conducted to determine the psychosocial effects of incest or to elucidate treatment models for women who were incestuously abused as children/adolescents" (Buskirk & Cole, 1983, p. 503). The authors of that statement recognize the need for research on women who were incest victims; however, they express the need as being from the perspective of the observer. This study is designed to explore incest from the perspective of the primary victim. How was it for her? How did she experience her world of incestuous abuse?

The subjects for the study are women in midlife who were victimized by incest as children and who had not reported it or sought treatment until now. Thus, it contributes to the meaning of the experience of incest at the time that it was being lived, and it follows through by extracting the essential meaning of the experience as lived by the subjects many years after the abuse.

In studying the experience it seems important to arrive at an understanding of what incest is. Webster defines it as "sexual intercourse between persons too closely related to marry legally." That definition, however, is thought by many researchers and therapists to be too narrow. Other forms of sexual activity are defined as incest, such as genital fondling (Rosenfeld, 1979; Herman & Hirschman, 1981). Herman and Hirschman (1981) also include masturbation and oral genital contact in their definition of incest. For this study incest is defined as sexual contact between a child/adolescent and another member of her family of close relatives.

The purpose of this study is to explore the women's experiences as felt by them, in the hope that it will provide meaning for all incest victims, for the

individual primary victim, for the family constellation which is a victim, and for the constellation of the family of man. For if we are to accept the growing belief that all living organisms are inextricably linked, then we must accept the possibility that victimization which occurs to the one occurs to the whole of us.

ADVENTURES IN BECOMING

Sharon Solfvin (MA, Psychology, June, 1984)

The title of this thesis is *Adventures in Becoming*. It is comprised of two main sections entitled, "Adventures in Becoming" and "Jamie: Adventures in the Land of Becoming". The former is a philosophical, theoretical discussion encompassing many stages of growth while the latter is an illustrated book for adults and children depicting early developmental issues in philosophical and psychological growth. A third minor bridging section clarifies the relationship between the two main sections.

Section I, "Adventures in Becoming", is based on readings in philosophy, therapeutic and experimental psychology, religion, and anthropology. The topics covered are authenticity, relevancy, the Self, action, differences, and the relational. Time and its experience are a continual theme in both sections. Section II, "Jamie: Adventures in the Land of Becoming", explores through color, movement, symbols, and characterization the journey of Self-discovery, not only for the individual, but also potentially for the collective.

AN EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP OF FORMAL REASONING ABILITY TO GENERAL INTELLIGENCE SCORES AND ACHIEVEMENT TEST SCORES OF HIGH SCHOOL CHEMISTRY STUDENTS

Melissa W. Smith (EdS, Secondary Education, March, 1985)

This study was designed to investigate whether there is a significant positive correlation between achievement in a high school chemistry course and abstract reasoning ability as measured by Piagetian-styled formal operational reasoning tasks. Chemistry, as taught today, contains many abstract concepts which require the use of formal operational reasoning skills. A strong positive correlation would indicate that students who have not made the transition to the formal operational reasoning level cannot be expected to succeed in chemistry courses as they are taught today.

The study also included an investigation to determine whether there is a significant positive correlation between intelligence test scores and

abstract reasoning skills as measured by Piagetian-styled formal operational reasoning skills and the NSTA 1983 Chemistry Exam did not require abstract reasoning to arrive at solution without explanations. Piagetian-styled tasks require abstract reasoning to arrive at solutions and explanations of those solutions.

The study was conducted at Temple High School, Carroll County, Georgia. The subjects were 33 eleventh- and twelfth-grade students in an introductory high school chemistry class during the school year 1983-84. The study was conducted in May, 1984.

Three test instruments were administered to the subjects during the time of the study by the same teacher: (1) the National Science Teachers Association Form 1983 Examination in High School Chemistry (NSTA 1983 Chemistry Exam), (2) the Otis-Lennon Advanced Level Mental Ability Test, and (3) Piagetian-styled tasks of formal operational reasoning skills. Pearson correlation coefficients were determined. The .05 level of significance was established for acceptance of positive correlations.

Results indicated a significant positive correlation between scores on (1) formal operational reasoning skills and the NSTA 1983 Chemistry Exam (Pearson coefficient = .3973), (2) formal operational reasoning skills and the Otis-Lennon Advanced Level Mental Ability Test (Pearson coefficient = .4814), and (3) the NSTA 1983 Chemistry Exam and the Otis-Lennon Advanced Level Mental Ability Test (Pearson coefficient = .6980). However, only the Pearson coefficient of the NSTA 1983 Chemistry Exam and the Otis-Lennon Advanced Level Mental Ability Test met the .50 or greater level necessary to be used for group predictive purposes.

These results imply that students with high intelligence scores also score higher on subject matter achievement tests than their peers with low intelligence scores. Although the Pearson coefficient of .3973 of the formal operational reasoning skills and the NSTA 1983 Chemistry Exam sis not meet the .50 or greater level to be used for group predictive purposes, implications of this study suggest that the regular classroom teacher may need to adapt his/her teaching strategies and approaches to the subject matter to accommodate the reasoning levels of some of his/her students.

CARROLL COUNTY, GEORGIA: RESOURCES FOR TEACHING LOCAL HISTORY

Jody Elizabeth Talley (EdS, Secondary Education, December, 1984)

The purpose of this study was to identify and selectively compile resources for the teachers of Central Primary School, Carrollton, Georgia to use in preparing a unit of instruction on the history of Carroll County. Specific purposes which contributed to the achievement of the primary

goal were (a) to describe historical sites located in Carroll County, (b) to describe depositories of information about Carroll County, (c) to list available resource people who are knowledgeable about various areas of County history, (d) to record an audio tapes interviews with selected resource people and make these tapes available at Central Primary School and Neva Lomason Library in Carrollton, and (e) to create and make available a slide presentation about Carroll County and its history.

A list of historically significant sites located in Carroll County was compiled after the researcher read available printed information about Carroll County and spoke with members of the communities in the County. Selected sites were visited and available authorities were interviewed.

Slides were made of those historic sites that were determined to be visually and historically interesting. An audio tape describing the sites was made to enhance the slide presentation.

The researcher visited or telephoned persons in places in the County that contained information about the history of Carroll County. Questions about available information were asked of employees and elected officials. Any printed material was obtained and read by the researcher.

After corresponding with and interviewing leaders in each County community, the researcher compiled a list of persons having useful information about Carroll County history. The names were listed by areas of expertise after permission to use each individual's name was obtained.

From the list of resource individuals, persons were selected to be interviewed on audio tape. A list of questions was prepared taking into account the individual's area of expertise. The interviews were conducted, taped, and then summarized for this project.

A STUDY OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF A READING LAB APPROACH IN TEACHING SECONDARY READING SKILLS

Ramona R. Teal (EdS, Reading, June, 1984)

The purpose of this study was to determine whether or not an individualized reading lab approach to teaching reading skills to secondary students was effective. Significant differences between the posttest scores on vocabulary, comprehension and rate of reading as measured by the Nelson-Denny Reading Test were investigated. Additionally, any differences in the scores of boys and girls were analyzed. One hundred fifty-nine students in the tenth grade acted as subjects.

A factorial analysis of covariance was used on the data. Rate of reading did show significant differences after the treatment (P.K. Yonge Reading

Lab participation); however, vocabulary, comprehension and the difference in the sexes did not show a significant difference after treatment.

Reading rate can be increased significantly when secondary students are exposed to rate technique.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF READING REGRESSION OR GAIN OF THIRD-GRADE STUDENTS AND THEIR LEARNING EXPERIENCES SUCCEEDING A SUMMER BREAK

Trudy Wages (EdS, Early Childhood Education, August, 1984)

The purpose of this study was to determine if there was a regression or gain of students' reading achievement scores over an intervening summer with its related experiences. Reading test scores were obtained in May and compared to those reading test scores in September. Specifically, this study sought to determine if there was a significant relationship between the degree of regression and/or gain in reading and the types of learning activities experienced by the students during the summer break.

The sample involved in this study included children of various socio-economic backgrounds. The study sample consisted of students attending a public elementary school, kindergarten through grade six, in a metropolitan area located approximately 15 miles from a large inner city. The housing included single family dwellings, both owned and rented, and multi-family complexes.

The children were tested with the Iowa Test of Basic Skills the first week of May. A questionnaire was constructed and sent home to the parents of each child in the third-grade group. The parents were asked to record their child's activities on the questionnaire. At the beginning of the following year, the Iowa Test of Basic Skills was given ans the scores were compared to the spring scores. Finally, all data which were obtained through testings and questionnaires were categorized and mean score differences were calculated using the **t** test comparison for independent means. The level of significance for rejection of the generated null hypotheses was .05.

The results of the **t** tests showed that there was a significant difference between the mean scores between the spring and fall testings of third-grade students as measured by the Iowa Test of Basic Skills. The students were inclined to gain in reading achievement over the summer. However, the study did show that there was no significant difference between reading gain scores based upon the number of books read, the number of hours spent watching television per week, the number of trips made to the public

library or bookmobile, the number of books bought or received through book clubs, the number of educational magazines received, the number of books read to child, whether or not they attended Vacation Bible School, whether or not they attended a Summer Library Program, or whether or not they experienced an educational trip over the summer break.

THE EFFECTS OF LABELING UPON ACCEPTANCE FOR SOCIAL INTERACTION OF MENTALLY RETARDED ADOLESCENTS BY NONHANDICAPPED ADOLESCENT PEERS IN A JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Sandra E. Whitmore (EdS, Special Education, August, 1984)

The effects of the label "mentally retarded" upon the acceptance for social interaction of mentally retarded adolescents by nonhandicapped adolescents were reviewed in this study. Two hundred middle-to-low socio-economic level, 12 to 14 year old adolescents from the seventh grade 1983-84 class of Murray County Junior High School in North Georgia were divided into four groups of 50 with each group consisting of 25 males and 25 females. Each respondent was asked to read a description of either an hypothetical, labeled or nonlabeled, mentally retarded female and decide if they would attend a sporting event with that subject. Data were analyzed using a Chi square to determine a .05 level of significance. Significant differences in response were evidenced by the female respondents toward both the labeled and nonlabeled male and female subjects. A significant difference in response was also evidenced by the male respondents toward the labeled and nonlabeled female subject, but no significant difference in their response to the labeled and nonlabeled male subject was noted. Conclusions imply that labeling a retarded female adolescent was detrimental to her acceptance for social interaction by nonhandicapped adolescents of both genders. Retarded male adolescents appeared to have benefited from the label when being considered for social interaction by nonhandicapped females. Retarded males were not significantly advantaged or disadvantaged by the label assignment when being considered for social interaction by nonhandicapped male peers.

A COMPARISON OF THE SELF-CONCEPTS OF BEHAVIORALLY DISORDERED AND REGULAR CLASS MIDDLE SCHOOL STUDENTS IN WHITFIELD COUNTY SCHOOLS

Donna Wilburn (EdS, Special Education, June, 1984)

An important factor in any student's educational experience is their self-concept. The purpose of this study was to compare the self-concepts of behaviorally disordered and regular class middle school students in

Whitfield County Schools. The null hypothesis tested stated that there would be no significant difference between behaviorally disordered students and regular classroom students in terms of self-concept as measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale.

The subjects in the study were a group of 20 behaviorally disordered and 20 regular class middle school students. The regular class students were matched to the behaviorally disordered students on the basis of sex and age. All subjects were administered the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale in groups of five. A t-test was used to determine if the two groups differed significantly on total raw scores as well as any of the six factors derived from the items on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale.

Highly significant differences, at the .001 level, were obtained between mean scores for the behaviorally disordered group and the regular class group on total raw scores, as well as on cluster scores, for Factor 1, Behavior, and Factor 2, Intellectual and School Status. Significant differences at the .01 level were obtained on Factor 3, Physical Appearance and Attributes, and Factor 6, Happiness and Satisfaction. No significant differences were found on Factor 4 Anxiety, and Factor 5, Popularity, but the behaviorally disordered group did continue to demonstrate lower mean scores. The t-values from the total raw scores, as well as the scores on Factors, 1,2, 3, and 6 indicated that the null hypothesis should be rejected.

A SURVEY OF THE ROLE OF COMPUTERS IN MATHEMATICS CLASSES AND IN CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION IN STATE SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF

Linda Meyers Williams (EdS, Special Education, August, 1984)

The purpose of this paper was to survey the role of computers in mathematics classes and in classroom instruction in state schools for the deaf. Computers can be the object of instruction or the vehicle for instruction. Computers offer job opportunities for deaf young people that are current and viable. A Survey of Computer Usage in State Schools for the Deaf form was sent to 106 independent public programs serving the hearing impaired. A total of 69 surveys were returned, of which 55 were from state supported schools to be included in the survey. Data were collected to show the types of usage of computer equipment by schools, the percentage of faculty trained for computer usage in each program, the types of computer hardware available at each location, and the location of computers for mathematics classes at each facility. Schools for the deaf need to place more emphasis on computer skills if graduates are to be competitive in the job market. More software needs to be developed for hearing impaired students, and more classroom teachers need training in the use of computers for classroom instruction.

A COMPARISON OF ATTITUDES TOWARDS MATHEMATICS BETWEEN MIDDLE SCHOOL STUDENTS IN AN INDIVIDUALIZED SETTING AND A TRADITIONAL SETTING

Melanie S. Wilson (EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1984)

The purpose of this study was to determine if a more positive attitude exists in students in an individualized setting or in a traditional setting. The relationship of attitudes toward mathematics in relation to sex and grade level was also evaluated.

The population of the study consisted of the regular education mathematics students at Westside Middle School during the 1983-1984 school year. The only regular education mathematics students not included in the study were those in the eighth-grade algebra class.

The test used to collect the data for the study was the Dutton Scale (Stright's modification) attitude test. The statistic used to test the null hypotheses was the analysis of variance. The level at which the null hypotheses would be rejected was set at .05.

The results from the data showed a significant difference in favor of the students in the individualized setting as opposed to those in the traditional setting. There was also a significant difference in favor of the females' attitude when compared to the males' attitude. The two-way interaction between grade level and class setting revealed that sixth-grade students in an individualized setting had significantly more positive attitudes toward mathematics than any other group of students.

THE EFFECTS OF INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION IN MATHEMATICS ON ACHIEVEMENT AND ATTITUDE OF FIFTH-YEAR STUDENTS

Annie Louise Winton (EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1984)

The purpose of this study was to determine whether the individualized method of instruction in mathematics at the fifth-grade level resulted in greater achievement than the traditional whole-class method of instruction and whether mode of instruction significantly affected attitude towards mathematics.

The subjects for this study were two fifth-grade classes in an elementary school in a large metropolitan county known for its excellence in education. The classes were presumed equivalent in sex and initial mathematics achievement. Twenty-five students in each group completed the experiment.

The experimental group received individualized instruction and the control group received traditional whole-class instruction. Both groups

were taught Level 16 of the county methematics skills program for a period of 12 weeks. The county Mathematics Criterion Referenced Test and an attitude test were administered as a pretest before the experiment and again as a posttest upon completion of the experiment.

A Multifactor Analysis of Variance was used to test the null hypotheses at the .05 level of significance. No significance differences in achievement or attitude were found with regard to sex or mode of instruction.

It is recommended that similar studies be conducted in other elementary schools to see whether the results are similar.

THE REASON BEHIND PARENTAL CHOICE OF PRIVATE EDUCATION

Susan D. Wood (EdS, Middle Grades Education, March, 1985)

The study was designed to explore the reasons which motivate parents to send a child or children to private school. The study sought to determine if superior social climate and academics were the najor reasons parents cited for choosing a private school as research indicates, and if parents with a higher level of education would differ in their reason for choosing a private school from parents with a lower level of education.

The participants of the study were 151 families with a child or children enrolled in Oak Mountain Academy, a private non-sectarian school in Carrollton, Georgia.

Information for the study was gathered through a survey. The survey information included the number of children in private school and their grade levels, the educational level of the parents, and a list of eight reasons for sending a child to private school, which the parents ranked in order of importance. The surveys and a letter of explanation were taken home by the oldest child in each family and then returned in an attached enevelope to the homeroom teacher. This survey was administered in early May over a one week period of time.

Data from the surveys were compiled by computer. A rank order of the reasons for sending a child to private school was tabulated for the population as a whole and for the two groups with different educational levels.

Hypothesis one stated that parents would consider academics and social climate as the two most important reasons for sending a child to private school. The rank order of choices for the total population supported the idea of academics as the number one reason parents cited, but social climate was not ranked second in importance. Parents viewed class size and individualization as the second most important reason for choosing a private school. On the whole, parents ranked social climate fifth in order of importance.

A rank order for the two educational levels was obtained. The rank order supported the second hypothesis. Parents with a bachelor's degree or more and parents with less than a bachelor's degree agreed when ranking reasons for choosing a private school.

The third hypothesis stated that for each reason to be ranked, the parents would view the reason as either a high priority concern or a low priority concern with no even distribution over high priority and low priority on any item. Chi square was used as the test at a level of .05 significance. The hypothesis proved true for six out of the eight choices on the survey. Academics had a chi square value of $X^2 = 102$, d.f. (1), class size and individualization has a chi square value of $X^2 = 74.02$, d.f. (1), integration had a chi square value of $X^2 = 65.6$, d.f. (1), parents educated privately had a chi square value of $X^2 = 91.34$, d.f. (1), parental involvement had a chi square value of $X^2 = 44.75$, d.f. (1), and student interest and achievement had a chi square value of $X^2 = 15.72$, d.f. (1). All of these reasons were significant at a level of .05. However, social climate had a chi square value of $X^2 = 16$, d.f. (1), and faculty had a chi square value of $X^2 = 1.58$, d.f. (1). These two items were not significant at the .05 level. Thus the hypothesis was rejected. Parents did not view every reason on the survey as being a high priority or a low priority item. There existed some mixed feeling on two of the choices.

From the study, it appears that parents have definite reasons for sending a child or children to private school, and basically agree on which reasons are of major importance. The educational level of the parents did not seem to affect the rank order of reasons for school choice. However, for this population, there was not a wide range in educational level as there may be with a larger sample. Parents held some items such as academics and class size as high priority concerns, whereas integration held a very low priority of concern. On items such as faculty and social climate, parents had mixed levels of concern. As long as private education continues to be a part of the education framework in America, the question of why parents choose to pay for a service that is otherwise free will continue to be asked.

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An annual Bibliography includes doctoral dissertations, major recitals and major exhibits. Theses and articles in progress or accepted are not listed. A faculty member's intitial listing is comprehensive and appears in the issue of the year of his employment. The abstracts of all master's theses and educational specialists projects written at West Georgia College are included as they are awarded.

IN SEARCH OF HAPPIER TIMES: HORTON FOOTE'S *THE TRIP TO BOUNTIFUL*

*by Glenn D. Novak**

At the awards ceremony of the Academy of Motion Picture Arts and Sciences held on March 24, 1986, Geraldine Page accepted her Oscar for Best Performance by an Actress in a Leading Role. That role was Mrs. Watts, and the film was *The Trip to Bountiful.* Ms. Page's acceptance speech was emotional, which is common; it was also brief, which is not. Yet, several times she expressed gratitude to a man whose name is not widely known outside of television and film circles. It was the name of a man who, more than thirty years earlier, had written the lines that Mrs. Watts would say to her confused and frustrated family. Ms. Page praised—and thanked—Horton Foote, the author of *The Trip to Bountiful.*

This paper will discuss live television drama of the early 1950's with special focus on Horton Foote's simple and perceptive teleplay, *The Trip to Bountiful.* It will look at the author, his original play, and its live performance on television in 1953. No attempt is made to compare the original teleplay with its modern film descendant, but only to provide a critical and historical context to assist today's filmgoer in assessing the merits of the story, and the impact of the characters.

Live Television Drama

Much has been written concerning the "Golden Age" of television drama, that luminous period from about 1952 to 1957 during which some of the most inspired and memorable short plays were written and produced on live network television. Their names and authors are well-known: *Requiem for a Heavyweight, Patterns,* and *Noon on Doomsday* by Rod Serling; *Marty, Bachelor Party,* and *The Mother* by Paddy Chayefsky; *Thunder on Sycamore Street* and *Twelve Angy Men* by Reginald Rose; *Visit to a Small Planet* by Gore Vidal. The familiarity of these author's names today is due both to the quality of their early television writing and to the fact that many of them received later recognition in other artistic endeavors, namely television series, novels, Broadway, and motion pictures. To a great many Americans today, Rod Serling means *Twilight Zone* or *Night Gallery*, Chayefsky's "claim to fame" is his screenplay for *Network*, and Gore Vidal was William Buckley's opponent in a hostile television discussion almost two decades ago.

The 1950's, of course, produced other fine television writers, less active or less conspicuous in later years than their afore-mentioned colleagues, but nonetheless well-known and well-respected in their time. These are the

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men who, along with Chayefsky, comprised Fred Coe's fine stable of writers, making NBC's Philco-Goodyear Television *Playhouse* the most popular live television dramatic program in its first four seasons on the air ("Grownups' Playhouse"). These writers include David Shaw (*Native Dancer*), N. Richard Nash (*The Joker*), Robert Alan Aurthur (*Spring Reunion*), Tad Mosel (*The Lawn Party*), and Horton Foote.

A "Texas Chekhov"

Horton Foote was born on March 14, 1916, in the small town of Wharton, Texas. A fifth-generation Texan, Foote felt a strong affinity for the land and the people in and around his hometown. He later created the imaginary towns of Harrison and Bountiful, modeling them closely after the characteristics and people of Wharton. Foote has written:

> From the beginning, most of my plays have taken place in the imaginary town of Harrison, Texas, and it seems to me a more unlikely subject could not be found in these days of Broadway and world theatre, than this attempt of mine to recreate a small Southern town and its people. But I did not choose this task, this place, or these people to write about so much as they chose me, and I try to write of them with honesty. ("Foote" 210)

Educated at the Pasadena Playhouse (1933-35) and the Tamara Darkarhovna Theatre School (1937-39), Horton Foote began his theatrical career as an actor, appearing in minor roles on Broadway through 1942. He operated Productions, Inc., in Washington, D.C., where he taught playwriting and acting and managed a semi-professional theatre. Like the majority of the new talent soon to enter television—writers, actors, directors—Foote first gained considerable experience in legitimate theatre.

Foote had written two stage plays before turning his attention to television: *Only the Heart* (1944) and *The Chase* (1952). His first television play, *The Travelers*, was produced on NBC in 1952. This was followed by *The Trip to Bountiful, A Young Lady of Property, John Turner Davis, The Tears of My Sister, The Death of the Old Man, Expectant Relations*, and *The Midnight Caller*, all produced in 1953 on either the Philco-Goodyear *Playhouse* or the Gulf *Playhouse*. Foote's *The Dancers* and *The Shadow of Willie Greer* were produced by NBC in 1954; *Flight* by NBC in 1956; *Members of the Family* by CBS in 1957; *The Shape of the River* by CBS in 1960; and *The Gambling Heart* by NBC in 1964.

> Foote has described a devise he uses in the writing of his television plays:
> I keep a journal of each play's progress as I work, with the problems I feel need to be worked out, but when I finish the play, I can't bear to read or study any of these notes. Partly, I suppose it is because I will be reminded of many things I failed to do that my talent and technique were not ready to do. (Burack 148)

Apparently, Foote felt that his talent and technique were becoming well-suited for motion pictures. He wrote several screenplays, among them *Storm Fear* (United Artists, 1956), *To Kill a Mockingbird* (Universal, 1962),[1] *The Chase* (Columbia, 1965), *Baby, the Rain Must Fall* (Columbia, *1965),*[2] *Hurry Sundown* (Paramount, 1966), *The Stalking Moon* (Warner Brothers, 1968), and *Tomorrow* (Filmgroup, 1971).

In the preface to his anthology of eight television plays, entitled *Harrison, Texas*, Foote identifies several characteristics common to his plays: (1) they share the same general locale; (2) the central characters are almost always either very young or very old; (3) one of two common themes are explored in varying ways, "an acceptance of life or a preparation for death" (viii). *The Trip to Bountiful* is an excellent example of Foote's writing that clearly demonstrates all these characteristics.

Foote's ability to depict the inner turmoil and deep motivations of common, ordinary people has led critic Henry Hewes to call him a "Texas Chekhov" ("Trips, Pleasant and Unpleasant" 49), a term especially appropriate to the rural-urban dichotomy expressed in *The Trip to Bountiful.* Sturcken sees Foote as the rural counterpart of Paddy Chayefsky, dealing with the middle-class citizens of the typical, small Southern town rather than the congested neighborhoods of the Bronx or Brooklyn (144). Foote's emphasis is always on character over plot; the characters are interesting, fully developed, and always human, while the plots are typically simple and often sentimental. NBC *Playhouse* producer Fred Coe explained in 1954: "If anyone else used one of Horton's plots, he would probably come out with a soap opera. But he writes with great craft and know-how, especially about problems of youth and old age ("Bright Galaxy").

Bus Ride to the Past

The problem of old age is evident in *The Trip to Bountiful.* Act One establishes the unhappiness of the elderly central character, Mrs. Carrie Watts, who, forced by economic necessities to live with her son and daughter-in-law in a cramped, two-room apartment in downtown Houston, longs for the day when she can return to the open air and the spacious farmhouse she grew up in years ago in the town of Bountiful. Making life more difficult for her is the daughter-in-law, Jessie Mae, a "denatured specimen of the humanity which the city produces" (Clurman). She is a vain, selfish woman with an insatiable appetite for Coca-Colas, movie fan magazines, and beauty parlors, apparently paid for with Mrs. Watts' pension check, confiscated each month by Jessie Mae. The old lady conceals the check this month and proceeds to purchase a bus ticket to Bountiful to realize an old dream. Later, Jessie Mae and her husband, Ludie, "a failure who is torn between two loyalties" ("Trip to Bountiful" *Newsweek*), arrive at the bus depot, unsuccessful in their attempt to track

down Mrs. Watts. The bus pulls away as Jessie Mae, angry and militant, shouts out her intention to call the police.

Act Two is an excellent example of skillful expository writing. The audience thus far is aware only of Jessie Mae's badgering personality and the awesome determination of Mrs. Watts to reach her goal. The conversation on the bus between Mrs. Watts and a young lady named Thelma provides the audience with the necessary understanding of why Bountiful is so important to the old lady. Edgar Willis praises this scene as a natural and motivated presentation of facts, facts essential to the understanding of the play:

> The conversation that takes place between the two is a completely natural one. Utter strangers are constantly meeting and talking in bus stations, and the fact that Thelma is a stranger means that she does not know what is going on. As she finds out what is happening, so does the eavesdropping audience. It is also completely natural for Mrs. Watts to pour out her heart to Thelma during the bus ride, for we often find it easier to talk to strangers about intimate matters than we do to close friends. By means of this scene Foote lets us know the intensity of Mrs. Watts' desire to return to Bountiful, a feeling we must understand to appreciate her desperate struggle to reach it. (145)

At the end of the act, Mrs. Watts has reached the town of Harrison, close to Bountiful. As she sits alone in the bus depot, hoping to get a ride in the morning to Bountiful, she learns from the sheriff that Ludie and Jessie Mae are on their way to retrieve her, and she experiences a fainting spell.

Marya Mannes said in 1954 that "television is the place for the poet, the master of mood and of word. It is the place for implication, for simplicity, even for silence." Implication and mood play a large role in Act Three, which opens on Mrs. Watts standing on the front porch of her dilapidated old home. She seems at peace, contented with the world and with herself. The brief visit "gives her back the sense of personal dignity which Jessie Mae had trampled upon" (Wyatt). Her happiness is interrupted, however, by the arrival of Ludie and Jessie Mae. Ripping up her pension check in front of her disbelieving daughter-in-law, Mrs. Watts seems to be renewed and invigorated, willing to return to Houston with her son, but equipped with her dignity and her strength: "I've had my trip. That's more than enough to keep me happy the rest of my life" (Foote 262). It is an emotional ending to a play which explores the theme of what happens to people who lose a sense of their roots in the transition to an industrialized, overcrowded society. Such a transition is especially difficult for the old, and for Mrs. Watts it is poignant and painful. Richard Hayes states that "Mr. Foote conveys the sure, genuine emotion of his theme not by coldly

parading disaster, but by permitting life slowly to accumulate until at the last—cleanly and with great strength—symapthy takes us prisoner."

Anatomy of a Coke Drinker

Horton Foote is a writer with a fine ability to delineate and express character. As such, it is not difficult to see why he would fit in well with the NBC *Playhouse*, whose philosophy was discussed in 1954 by its guiding force, producer Fred Coe: "The TV approach, as opposed to the theatre or movies or radio, is an approach to the understanding of character rather than to the complication of the story line"(30). Virtually all of the criticism concerning the television drama of Horton Foote makes mention of his outstanding knack for characterization. Jack Gould of the *New York Times* stated that Foote's *The Old Beginning* "easily ranks as one of his better works because he delved much more deeply into the motivation of his characters and came to grips with them as people." Another writer stated that "there is still no substitute for well-defined characterizations; fictional people should bring a story alive through their personalities, traits, and actions. Some television dramas observe this fundamental; others don't" ("Television in Review"). Foote's *Expectant Relations*, the same writer affirms, is a good example of one that does. And, regarding *The Trip to Bountiful*, Hewes has stated that the various events of the actual plot are not terribly exciting in themselves, but "most of the drama comes from the conflagrations that burn silently within the characters" ("Trips" 48).

The character of Jessie Mae Watts is a case in point: she is an excellent example of Foote's skill in careful, detailed, and consistent characterization. She is a character whom we feel we know as well as Chayefsky's Marty or Serling's Mountain McClintock, though we certainly like her less. Jessie Mae is, in the words of Wolcott Gibbs, "a ferocious summing up of all the idle, discontented, and empty-headed women—the Coke drinkers, double-feature addicts, and juke-box enthusiasts—who are so often alleged to make up most of the female population of the desolate South" (75).

Edgar Willis uses the character of Jessie Mae in his textbook analysis of repeating character qualities. Foote describes Jessie Mae briefly in his production directions to *The Trip to Bountiful*: she is an obviously vain woman who is hard, self-centered, and domineering (221). Her vanity is impressed upon us through a series of encounters that show the audience that she is addicted to the reading of movie magazines and that she even fancies that she might be successful in Hollywood. As Willis says, "the impression of her vanity is further developed by the revelation that she spends long hours in beauty parlors" (131). Her selfishness is portrayed again and again as the play progresses. She expects to be waited on hand

and foot, a trait revealed in the opening scene when she asks Mrs. Watts to go into the kitchen and get her a coke. Later we learn that the old lady prepares all the meals in the house. Whatever concern Jessie Mae might have for her mother-in-law is shown to be motivated entirely by greed and selfishness. If anything happens to Mrs. Watts, it will immediately cut off the pension check. She seems afraid that Mrs. Watts may die of excitement once she arrives in Bountiful, but this concern becomes transparent as she bemoans in the next breath the expense involved in bringing the body back to Houston. And, in the final confrontation between the two women in Bountiful, Jessie Mae's first action is to grab ferociously for the old woman's pension check.

Foote skillfully develops Jessie Mae in other related ways, and the overall portrait is that of a woman very difficult to like. Early in the play, she squelches Mrs. Watts' singing because, she claims, it gets on her nerves. To Thelma, a complete stranger at the bus depot, she describes Mrs. Watts as "crazy" and "spoiled rotten." Despite her husband's objections, she brings the police into the situation, hoping to teach the old woman a lesson. Although she is certainly aware of what Bountiful means to her mother-in-law, she delights in characterizing it right to her face as an ugly old swamp. At the end of the play, she even denies Mrs. Watts a few moments of solitide and peace on the porch of her crumbling home by honking the car horn rudely and impatiently. As Willis concludes from these carefully chosen situations and conversations:

> Jessie Mae does and says different things as the play progresses, but each action confirms over and over gain her basic traits of selfishness and callous unconcern for other people's feelings. The range of the character is actually fairly limited, as it must be in a play that has to deal with one problem at a time, but the repeated revelation of these two basic traits gives an impression of character depth and richness. (132).

A Break with Tradition

The NBC *Playhouse* had a tradition of casting competent but relatively unknown stage actors into the roles of its television plays. Through moving performances in one or more of the better dramas produced by Coe, these actors began to make names for themselves, later broadening their careers into motion pictures. Actors and actresses like Joanne Woodward, Rod Steiger, Kim Stanley, and others were thrust from relative obscurity into national popularity through fine performances in live television drama (Coe 31). Big Hollywood names were avoided, for reasons discussed by Associate Producer Gordon Duff in an interview in April, 1953: "If you have an expensive Hollywood name, more people would tune in, but I'm not sure more people would like the show. A name's great, but we're not in the business to keep the press agent happy" ("Grownups' Playhouse").

The Trip to Bountiful represented a break with this tradition. The part of Mrs. Watts was played by Lillian Gish, 57 years old at the time. Her performance was hailed by many critics as one of the finest, if the *the* finest, of her entire dramatic career.[3] Foote dedicated the play to Ms. Gish, and it is so noted on the title page of the play as it appears in the anthology, *Harrison, Texas.*

A complete list of the cast of *The Trip to Bountiful*, presented on the Goodyear Television *Playhouse* at 9:00 PM, EST, on March 1, 1953, follows:

Mrs. Watts: Lillian Gish
Jessie Mae Watts: Eileen Heckart
Ludie Watts: John Beal
Thelma: Eva Marie Saint
Ticket Man (railway station): Dennis Cross
Bus Driver: Charles Sladen
Ticket Man (bus station): Will Hare
Attendant: Larry Bolton
Sheriff: Frank Overton
Ticket Man (second bus station): William Hansen

The director of the production was Vincent Donehue. Fred Coe was producer and Gordon Duff was associate producer.

The Trip to Broadway

Horton Foote's *The Trip to Bountiful* is especially significant because it marked a reversal of the common trend during the earliest days of live television drama—the reliance on successful Broadway plays as material for television. Not only was *The Trip to Bountiful* an original play specifically written for television (a common practice by 1953), but it became the first television play ever produced on Broadway (Sturcken 143). *Time* magazine commented on this unusual situation soon after the play opened: "While seeming to throttle stage and screen with one hand, television generously offering help with the other" ("Friend and Foe"). The stage play opened on November 3, 1953, at the Henry Miller Theatre, and enjoyed a run of about a month. The producer and director were unchanged from the television broadcast, and Ms. Gish continued in her role as Mrs. Watts. Ludie was played by Gene Lyons, and Jo Van Fleet (who would turn in a powerful performance two years later in *East of Eden*) replaced Eileen Heckart as Jessie Mae. The play marked Eva Marie Saint's first appearance on Broadway, as she re-created the role of Thelma ("Trip to Bountiful" *Theatre Arts*). The reviews of the stage play were mixed, but the majority of negative comments seemed to concentrate more on acting and sets than on the situations or dialogue. Eric Bentley's criticism in the *New Republic*, however, did raise an interesting question regarding Foote's characterization of Ludie Watts: "The plot, the theme,

the exigencies of theatre all demand that he speak, that he explain himself, but he is maddeningly and fatally silent, pleading some fifth amendment of the dramatic constitution." Critics were in general agreement, though, concerning the moving performance of Gish, Van Fleet, and Saint, and more than one expressed surprise and sadness at the fact that the play had such a brief run.

Unfolding the Human Spirit

The television writing of Horton Foote can best be described as the careful and sensitive exploration of the human mind and spirit. In *The Trip to Bountiful* he endeavors to portray that quality in all of us which spurs us on to an important goal, the attainment of which will satisfy an intense longing. In *The Tears of My Sister*, a short teleplay using the novel device of "camera-as-character,"[4] Foote tells the story of a young girl forced to marry a much older and unwanted man in order to provide for her mother and sister. *A Young Lady of Property*, in which Kim Stanley gave what was generally considered at the time to be the best television performance to date (Hewes "Six Authors"), is a poignant vignette about a teen-age girl's dreams, loneliness, and growing pains in a small Southern town in 1925. Throughout his many other plays, dealing as they do with the young or with the old, we see always the craft of a fine writer coming to terms with the problems and anxieties that are a part of life. And because life is unpredictable and uncertain, so are Horton Foote's characters uncertain and anxious, responding in ways that resist prediction or even rational explanation. He has consistently eschewed a formulaic approach to his depiction of the human condition. Erik Barnouw's discussion of the decline of live anthology drama might explain the obsolescence of perceptive character studies in which Foote specialized:

> It was especially catastrophic for the future of the medium that the "anthology series" seemed in danger of disappearing. A series of this sort, exemplified by Philco-Goodyear *Playhouse*, invites writer contributions without specification of required character, locale, or formula. The play is the thing. It is cast according to its needs. . . Writers responded to the open invitation of these series in a way that gave television for some years the initiative among dramatic media and made it the mecca of young writers and a major source for other media . . . Now the door apparently was being closed on most of such activity. Instead came series that did *not* say to the writer, "Write us a play." They said, "Write us a vehicle for _____ _____ in the role of a private eye named _____ _____. Final act should have strong action sequence. Study our formula before making submissions. Submit outlines through recognized agents." (35-36)

In view of such confining demands, it is not difficult to see why a writer like Horton Foote, always more interested in character and theme than in plot

or "strong action sequences," would gradually disappear from the television scene and turn his attention elsewhere. Like so many others of his time, he turned it toward Hollywood. On March 24, 1986, by awarding Geraldine Page an Oscar for Best Actress, Hollywood—and a watching world—turned its attention toward Horton Foote.

NOTES

[1]Horton Foote received an Academy Award for the best screenplay based on material from another medium for *To Kill a Mockingbird* in 1962. He also received an award from the Writers Guild of America for the same screenplay.

[2]The screenplay for *Baby, the Rain Must Fall* was based on Foote's own play entitled *The Traveling Lady*.

[3]See John Mason Brown's article, "The Trip to Bountiful," in *Saturday Review* (December 12, 1953): 46-47. See also E.V. Wyatt, "The Trip to Bountiful," in *The Cathloic World* (January, 1958): 308.

[4]With this technique, the central character is never seen by the audience. All of the action of the play is seen through the eyes of this character, who becomes, in essence, the camera. Other characters speak directly to this person by addressing the camera, and the audience hears the voice only as this person replies. Also, the thoughts of this central character are heard by the audience while the other characters, of course, are oblivious to them. Foote was not the first to use this device. Rod Steiger was the camera's voice for the first time in a play by Robert Alan Aurthur entitled *Cafe Society*. See *Variety* (July 18, 1953): 35.

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THE EXPANSION OF METROPOLITAN AREA IN GEORGIA

by C. Gerald Sanders and Dick G. Winchell***

Introduction

Georgia has recently experienced two phenomena associated with population growth: a 'turn around' in non-metropolitan growth and an expansion of metropolitan area. Non-metropolitan 'turn around' began after 1970, during which time rural counties, which had previously been declining in population, 'turned around' and began to gain population. Metropolitan expansion is the urbanization of previously rural counties adjoining urban centers and has been occuring since 1950. This study will examine metropolitan growth and its impact upon the fringes of urban areas.

Metropolitan Areas Defined

In 1940, the Bureau of Census recognized a need for establishing a data base for assessing the growth of population in and around certain large urban centers. In the decades that followed, criteria for defining those areas within which such growth was occuring have been developed, revised, and refined. Designations for those areas have been revised as well: in 1950 the designation in use was the Standard Metropolitan Area (SMA); in 1960, the Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA): and, currently, the Metropolitan Statistical Area (MSA) [U.S. Department of Commerce, 1953, p. xi; 1961, p. xii; 1971, p. A-4; 1982, p. A-4]. In addition to the MSA, the Office of Management and Budget created, by way of definition, the Consolidated Metropolitan Statistical Area (CMSA) and the Primary Metropolitan Statistical Area (PMSA) [U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1984, p. 2]. Examples of the latter two designations are the Miami-Ft. Lauderdale FL CMSA, and the PMSAs of Ft. Lauderdale—Hollywood—Pompano Beach and Miami-Hialeah. The Atlanta metropolitan area is an example of an MSA. According to the Bureau of Census,

> The general concept of an MSA is one of a large population nucleus together with adjacent communities which have a high degree of economic and social integration with the nucleus. CMSA's are large metropolitan complexes within which individual components, designated as PMSA's, have been defined. MSA's, CMSA's, and PMSA's are defined by the Office of Management and Budget as a standard for Federal agencies in the preparation and publication of statistics relating to metropolitan areas. The new terms MSA, CMSA, and PMSA went into effect June 30, 1983, replacing the

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previous terms SMSA (standard metropolitan statistical area) and SCSA (standard consolidated statistical area). [U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1984, p. 2]

All of the territory of the United States is classified as either metropolitan (within an MSA, CMSA, or PMSA) or non-metropolitan (outside those designated areas). With the exception of New England. where city and town units are used, all metropolitan areas are defined by entire county units. MSAs consist of at least one central city with a population greater than 50,000 and surrounding central counties which have close economic and social relationships with the neighboring outlying counties.

MSA Regions of Georgia

Georgia has no CMSAs or PMSAs but does have six MSAs with the metropolitan region. These towns include Marietta, Doraville, Forest area includes Georgia counties, therefore, has seven MSA regions within its borders (Figure 1). As one would expect, the Atlanta MSA has the largest population and the largest percentage change since 1980 (Table 1 & Figure 2). Two of the MSA central cities (Augusta and Columbus) have expanded urban influence into their respective out-of-state neighboring counties. One out-of-state central city (Chattanooga) has expanded its urban influence into northwestern Georgia. Chattanooga's MSA, however, is the only MSA region in Georgia to have shown a decline in population, attributed to a decline in the population of the Georgia counties of Dade (-6.0%) and Walker (—1.8%) and to a decrease in the "inside central city" population of Chattanooga (-3.1%).

Georgia's Rapid-growth Counties

Georgia has some of the most rapidly growing counties in the nation (Table 2). Gwinnett County ranks 5th in the nation with a 38.0% increase in population since 1984. Fayette is not far behind (ranking 20th) with an increase of 36.0%. Two counties, Camden and Long, are not among Georgia's MSAs currently, but both have growth rates exceeding 20% since 1980. Cobb, the third most populous county of Georgia, is among the most rapidly growing counties in Georgia with a growth rate of 19% between 1980 and 1984, missing the Census Bureau's listing of cities with growth rates of 20% or more by only one percentage point (Table 3). Nationally, Georgia counties do not rank very high in terms of population, but Georgia has ten counties with populations exceeding 100,000.

Growth & Expansion of Georgia MSAs

In Georgia, the number of MSA counties has increased from nine in 1950 to thirty-eight in 1984 (Figure 3). The greatest growth has been within the Atlanta MSA counties whose numbers increased from five in 1950 to eighteen in 1984. The fact that Athens (Clarke) has become an independent

MSA as of 1970 creates a barrier of sorts preventing further eastward encroachment of the Atlanta MSA which now includes (as of 1984) Barrow County. Currently, Atlanta's MSA counties of Barrow and Walton are contiguous to Athens' MSA counties to Oconee, Clark, and Jackson. Counties located along the north-west-south crescent (the so-called 'fringe' counties) of the Atlanta MSA are likely to become classified as part of the Atlanta MSA in the near future (Figure 4). It is likely that Hall County, with its 385-connector and other economic ties to Atlanta, will ultimately be included as part of the Atlanta MSA.

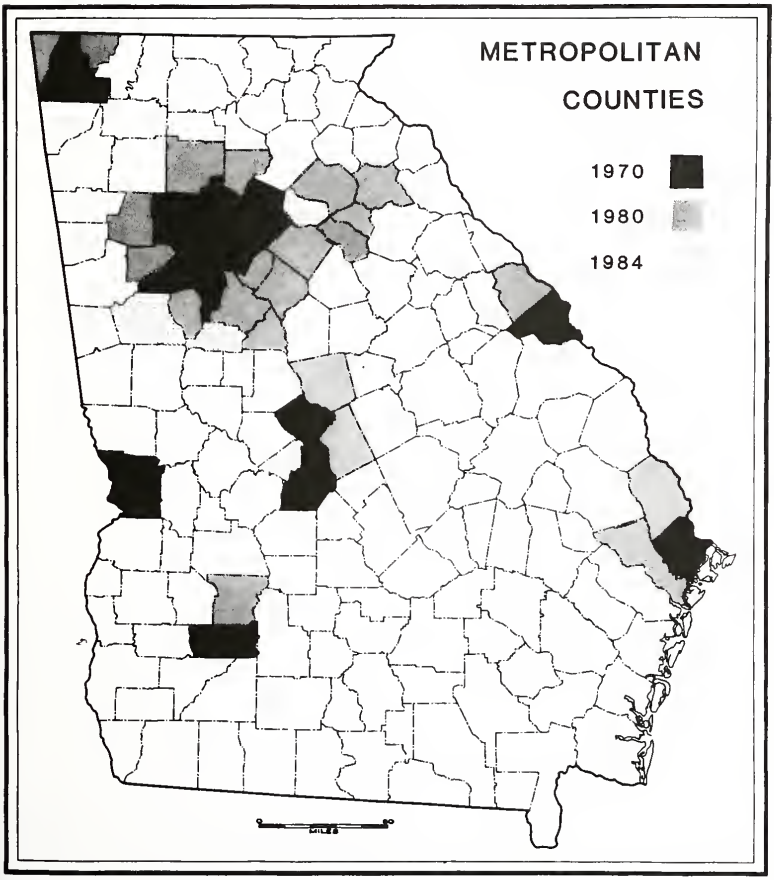

Figure 1

Table 1.

RANK OF GEORGIA METROPOLITAN STATISTICAL AREAS
BY PERCENTAGE CHANGE: 1980-84

GA Rank	US Rank	MSA	1984 Pop(est)	% Change
1	40	Atlanta, GA	2,380,000	11.3
2	99	Augusta, GA-SC	368,300	6.5
3	115	Savannah, GA	232,900	5.6
4	129	Athens, GA	136,000	5.1
5	170	Albany, GA	116,700	3.8
6	208	Columbus, GA-AL	244,500	2.1
7	245	(Chattanooga, TN)-GA	422,500	-0.9

(Source: U.S. Dept. of Commerce, Patterns of Metropolitan Area and County Population Growth: 1980 to 1984 , pp.48-51)

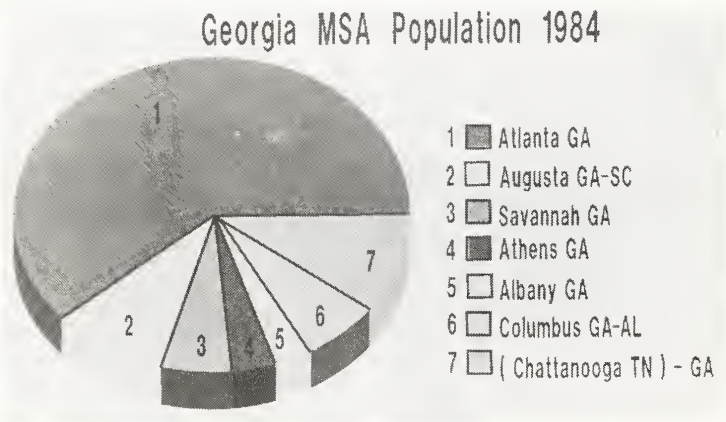

Figure 2

Table 2.

RANK OF GEORGIA COUNTIES GAINING 20+ PERCENT
1980-84

GA Rank	US Rank	County	MSA	1984 Pop(est)	% Change
1	15	Gwinnett	(Atlanta)	230,300	38.0
2	20	Fayette	(Atlanta)	39,500	36.0
3	43	Camden	(-)	16,800	25.8
4	65	Columbia	(Augusta)	49,500	23.3
5	84	Cherokee	(Atlanta)	62,800	21.4
6	97	Long	(-)	5,400	20.4

(Source: U.S. Dept. of Commerce, Patterns of Metropolitan Area and County Population Growth: 1980 to 1984 , pp. 52)

Table 3.

RANK OF GEORGIA COUNTIES POPULATION EXCEEDING 100,000
1984

GA Rank	US Rank	County	1984	1980	Number	% Change
1	69	Fulton	614,800	589,904	24,900	4.2
2	93	DeKalb	501,900	483,024	18,800	3.9
3	130	Cobb	354,300	297,718	56,600	19.0
4	200	Gwinnett	230,300	166,815	63,500	38.0
5	218	Chatham	212,400	202,226	10,200	5.0
6	240	Richmond	187,600	181,629	5,900	3.3
7	251	Muscogee	175,700	170,108	5,600	3.3
8	276	Clayton	162,600	150,357	12,300	8.2
9	290	Bibb	156,800	150,256	6,600	4.4
10	420	Dougherty	103,100	100,710	2,300	2.3

(Source: U.S. Dept. of Commerce, Patterns of Metropolitan Area and County Population Growth: 1980 to 1984 , pp. 53-56)

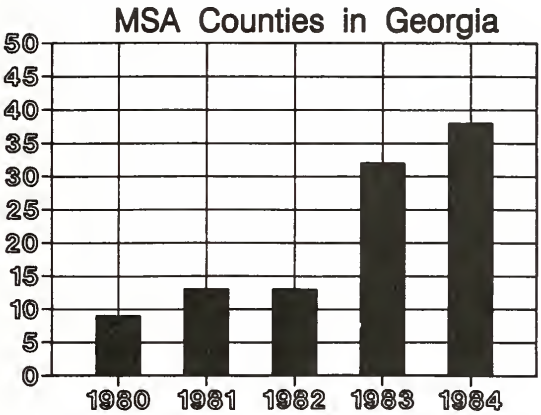

Figure 3

The expanding Atlanta MSA refelcts the extension of Metro Atlanta's influence. Freeways have reduced travel time from cities and towns surrounding Atlanta, encouraging people to work in Atlanta to commute to the city from greater distances. Development at the fringe of Atlanta has engulfed towns that once were separate cities, but are now part of the metropolitan region. These towns include Marietta, Doraville, Forest Park, Douglasville, and others. Continued growth at the edges of the metropolitan area further expands the urban area boundary, bringing the city closer to previously rural communities. Proximity to metropolitan areas, increases in the number of persons who commuting to those areas, and expansion of urban development types (e.g., subdivisions, shopping malls, office parks) into rural areas are factors which demonstrate the rapid expansion of urban influence on nearby rural counties. These

developments are accurately reflected by the Census Bureau's redesignation of these previously rural counties into Metropolitan Statistical Areas.

Findings

Georgia's MSAs have expanded to outlying counties and, no doubt, will continue to do so. These urban areas are exerting great influence upon the economics and activities of adjoining rural counties, especially those surrounding Atlanta. Four new counties have been designated as part of MSA populations since 1980, and additional rural counties adjoining MSAs will more than likely be incorporated into those regional census categories in the future. Residents of non-MSA counties and towns, including Carroll County and Carrollton, should recognize the continuing expansion of urban influences and prepare for the economic benefits and liabilities which accrue as a result of qualifying for the designation of Metropolitan Statistical Area.

[Acknowledgements: The authors express their appreciation to Randy Manino, geography major, for cartographic assistance and to the Learning Resources Center and Chuck Ormsbee for assistance in graphics development.]

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IS SECULAR HUMANISM A RELIGION AGAIN?

*by David J. Higgins**

As social groups move from the idealism of their beginnings into the main fabric of political life self-definition becomes a critical issue. For example, the early Christians would have eased into the Roman Empire with scarcely a frayed thread had they been willing to define themselves as a Jewish sect. The Jews were exempt from the presciptions to worship the emperors; Christians were martyred because they would neither worship nor accept self-definition as Jewish.

In our own time Secular Humanism is experiencing an analogous fraying. The issue is whether or not Secular Humanism defines itself as a religion. Class action suits are being brought in at least two states, Texas and Alabama, against school boards in an attempt to prevent the teaching of tenets of Secular Humanism in the public schools. If Secular Humanism is a religion, it cannot be taught. This essay highlights the inconsistencies in Secular Humanism's self-definition across time. Further progress for Secular Humanism in the political order depends on facing these inconsistencies and either re-defining itself or accepting the modern equivalent of martyrdom — exile from the schools and loss of federal funding. Thus the question: "Is Secular Humanism a religion again?" Again!

AS IT WAS IN THE BEGINNING

"Humanism is a philosophical, religious, and moral point of view as old as human civilization itself." So does Paul Kurtz begin his presentation of two working papers entitled: **Humanist Manifestos: I and II**.

The first manifesto appeared in 1933 and was signed by 34 prominent inquirers of whom Lester Mondale and John Dewey were the most memorable from today's perspective. They made fifteen affirmations "so that religious humanism may be better understood." They "regard the universe as self-existent and not created." Modern science is said to make "unacceptable any supernatural or cosmic guarantees of human values" (**HM I** 7).

Eight of the fifteen propositions specifically refer to the words "religion" and "religious." Two others address worship and deism.

No one reading **Manifesto I** could miss the point that it is a religious document dealing with religious issues. It sees the modern world as having created a situation which "requires a new statement of the means and purposes of religion." The focal points in the restructuring of religion

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consist of creation, the supernatural, the grounding of morals in anything other than human experience, prayer and worship. A debt to traditional religion is acknowledged — but what is needed for that present day is a vital, frank and fearless religion which can be a synthesizing and dynamic force for today. It will also be characterized by creativity, joy and hope. "To establish such a religion is a major necessity of the present." Such is the purpose which grounds the affirmations of **Humanist Manifesto I** (8).

IS NOW

Humanist Manifesto II appeared in 1973. It was signed, and continues to be signed, by many people whose names are in the media. It too deals with specifically religious issues; it eschews "faith in a prayer hearing God" (**HM II** 13); it can "discover no divine purpose or providence for the human species" (**HM II** 16). Traditional religions are now seen as an obstacle (**HM II** 17) and a source of intolerant attitudes (**HM II** 18).

Based on **HM II**, there is no longer an explicit recognition that humanists are asserting themselves from a perspective that is itself religious. The interest in establishing a religion has disappeared. In its place are many proposals in the direction of world community, freedom of discourse, education, and the rights of the disadvantaged — not including the unborn. A survey of bio briefs indicates that the authors of humanistically oriented articles are often involved in programs which are reconstructing society with recognizable allegiance to the ideals of **Manifesto II**.

Humanists seem not quite sure whether these **Manifestos** are to be quoted by their opponents as representative of Secular Humanists generally. In later exchanges, religious writers who disagree with the Secular Humanists are somehow diminished because they have taken the **Manifestos** as a source. That is unfortunate, for what is needed at the very beginning of fruitful dialogue is clarity — and that the **Manifestos** certainly have. They are concise and available as well. No one expects that any adherent to any set of propositions would affirm each without qualification. Clarity facilitates dialogue, whereas with even the best of good will, obscurantism is an unfortunate block to dialogue.

In retrospect it is possible to locate a precise event in time wherein Secular Humanism made the transition from an idea to be discussed and advocated to a movement to be confronted with countervailing political power. Dialogue became politicized with the Conlan amendment to the National Defense Education Act of 1976. "No grant, contract, or support is authorized under this Act for any educational program, curriculum research and development, administrator-teacher orientation, or any project involving one or more students or teacher-administrator involving any aspect of the religion of secular humanism" (**Cong. Rec.** 13531). Conlan referred to the 1961 Supreme Court decision (Torcaso vs.

Watkins): "Among religions in this country which do not teach what would generally be considered a belief in the existence of God are Buddhism, Taoism, Ethical Culture, Secular Humanism, and others" (13532).

This clear identification of Secular Humanism as a religion stands behind current Moral Majority efforts to control public school teaching. Again, if Secular Humanism is a religion, it cannot be taught in the public schools. In spite of their founding statements, Secular Humanists quickly denied such a narrow interpretation of the meaning of religion. "The attack on humanism as a secular religion infiltrating the schools in defiance of the First Amendment has no rational justification whatsoever" (Hook 7). Further, there was no possibility of establishing Secular Humanism as a religion: ". . . the organizational activities of secular humanists have no role in the schools; hence they are in no way leading to the establishment of a religion (Kurtz 1976, 5).

In 1980 Paul Kurtz and others promulgated **A Secular Humanist Declaration**. Democratic secular humanism is defined in contrast to religion. Although religion is acknowledged to have a value for private individuals and to make some contribution to social welfare, and although religious believers who share a belief in many secular humanist and democratic values are welcome to join in the defense of those ideals (10) — for the most part references to religion are either skeptical (17) or pejorative: ". . . religious activists not only are responsible for much of the terror and violence in the world today but stand in the way of solutions to the world's most serious problems" (9).

Nevertheless, free inquiry entails recognition of civil liberties; the right to organize opposition parties and to join voluntary associations is acknowledged (11). It is to be noted that this is just what Fundamentalists today are doing, to the consternation of Secular Humanists who are encouraging each other to themselves organize into political action groups, subscribe to sympathetic journals, and monetarily support their own ideals.

> Though we may tolerate contrasting points of view, this does not mean that they are immune to critical scrutiny. The guiding premise of those who believe in free inquiry is that truth is more likely to be discovered if the opportunity exists for the free exchange of opposing opinions. . . . (11)

In 1982, Maxine Negri urged the support of humanism as a nontheistic religion: "If humanism as a philosophy or as a nontheistic religion is ever to be understood by the public at large, it will have to be achieved by the efforts and money of humanists themselves" (46). Later in the article occurs the traditional religious directive:

> We should remember that tithing has been and is the grass-root support of church wealth. If you wish to spread and shed the 'light' of humanism to the far reaches of the world as the religion or philosophy you live by, you must realize that this cannot be achieved without adequate financial backing. (47)

I have quoted Negri as typical of the source from which current dilemmas stem: that is, even when it is unnecessary to do so, Secular Humanism presents itself as a religion and urges typically religious acts such as tithing and proselytizing. Certainly one could ask for money without such urging — were there a merely accidental or allusive connection between Secular Humanism and religion. What I suggest is that the connection is really and effectively intrinsic. The Supreme Court of 1961 seems to have described things the way they were to turn out to be (Torcaso vs. Watkins, above).

The most provocative assertions, subsequently quoted and widely distributed in anonymous fundamentalist literature, came from John Dunphy in 1983:

> I am convinced that the battle for humankind's future must be waged and won in the public school classroom by teachers who correctly perceive their role as the proselytizers of a new faith: a religion of humanity that recognizes and respects the spark of what theologians call divinity in every human being. (26)

Other Secular Humanists subsequently disassociated themselves from Dunphy's extremism; they merely acknowledge his right to express himself.

The force and urgency in the discussion of whether Secular Humanism is a religion or not is centered on this issue of education, especially public education and the effect of political policies on it. In contrast, many other issues raised by Secular Humanists are of much more interest from a merely intellectual viewpoint — for example, the grounding of morals, the ideal of free inquiry, the hope for a world community — none of these are stirring up the fuss. Even in discussions of abortion and population control, religious positions are critiqued without the issue of whether secular humanism is itself a religion being raised.

Some humanists have suggested letting all religions have their day in the public classrooms — expecting that students so educated would see the truth for themselves. That might be an acceptable proposal, if advocacy were prohibited and the pressures from grades and teachers as role models were obviated. Unfortunately, religion and church have become associated in most of the American experience; just as the church must be kept separate from the endeavors of the state, so too must religion. American pluralism has more to lose than to gain if it ever rejects Jefferson's "wall of

separation." Granted that there should be a separation, what is to be on either side?

The problem might be highlighted by pointing out that there are groups of people who also refuse to be identified with religion, who follow what they call the WAY, who regard abortion and contraception as immoral, who care for their neighbor and engage in free, creative dialogue with whosoever wishes. If Secular Humanism with its values clarification is not a religion, and so may be taught as the basis for learning in the public schools — then can not also the WAY with its clear and demanding morals also be taught? For it also is not a religion, and somewhat more consistently than Secular Humanism, does not alternately claim to be and then not to be a religion.

AND EVER SHALL BE

"But through all changes religion itself remains constant in its quest for abiding values, an inseparable feature of human life" (**HM I** 7).

To end on a rather quixotic note: In my professional lives, whether I am with secular humanists or with religious conservatives, my experience is much the same. In the journals of either I am invited to adjust my will so as to help carry on the work of enlightenment after I die. In either I am invited to subscribe my name to a list of members or supporters, to witness to my experience, to proselytize by writing letters and subscribing my friends to journals, and to tithe.

In personal meetings the topics of discussion are the same: God, foundation of values, individual rights, the community of man, resistance to authoritarianism, hang-ups about how one was raised. There is even an association with eating — unleavened bread in one case, a sesame seed bun in the other. The difference in the here and now everyday world is beyond perception, transcendent. Transcendent also of the politics and polemics of creatures. As St. Paul indicated to the Epicurean and Stoic Athenians, we live within a transcendent God playing peekaboo not far from any one of us.

Whether such casual dialogue, important as it is for both democracy and truth, can be made part of public education within the Constitution, remains to be seen.

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TAXATION IN THE DEVELOPING WORLD AND THE INTERNATIONAL GROUP EFFORT THE CASE OF CHILE

by Lisa Martin and Bill Schaniel***

Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to provide insight into selected aspects of social change in Chile. For the past thirty years, the changes have been influenced by both external and internal forces. In the sixties, the emphasis was on a redistribution of wealth within countries. In the more recent past, the external pressures for change have come from new international ideologies of wealth equalization between nations and a concurrent restructuring of trade relations.

As a result of the "New International Economic Order" and the "General System of Preferences" under the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade that has been in effect for almost a decade, granting a wide range of manufactured goods imported from Third-World countries duty-free status, the interaction of the United States with the developing world has been greatly intensified. A major portion of manufactured goods consumed in the United States today are now produced in developing countries. American businesses are investing in the Third World not only to supply the foreign, regional markets, but also to fill the demand at home. The natural resources which the developing world possesses are now increasingly processed in the foreign countries. Yet for the remainder of this century, the International Labor Office (1977) has predicted that unemployment problems would be severe in the developing world, and many countries in Latin America, including Chile have provided evidence of this situation.

The International Community and Chile

The relations between the United States and Chile have been active for decades. The country is rich in natural resources, especially copper, iron, fissionable, and other minerals. During the socialist regime of Salvador Allende (1970-1973), a considerable portion of its one billion dollar foreign investment, three-fourth of which was held by US companies, was nationalized. This nationalization of foreign assets inhibited further foreign investment. After the overthrow of the socialist regime and under the successor rule of General Augusto Pinochet Ugarte, foreign companies slowly regained confidence in the country's political stability. Mining of most minerals, including fissionable materials, was opened up to foreign exploration and now accounts for the bulk of foreign investments, which amounted to 3.4 billion dollars at the end of the last decade (BIC, 1981).

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Restrictions exist only in the mining of potassium and rare earth minerals. United States businesses still hold the majority share of the foreign investment.

Chile is of particular research interest because it has been responsive to the outside influence of international groups and technical assistance teams from the United States. As a result, the tax system has been closely aligned with that of the developed world. Today, the tax burden represents approximately one fourth of Chile's gross domestic product (GDP) and is among the heaviest in Latin America. It impacts upon the economy in a major way (Foxley, 1982; Pinto, 1982; Ro, 1981). But in studying the evolution of this system, an important point emerges: changes were often implemented too rapidly, and this has contributed in a significant manner to major socio-economic disturbances in Chile.

During a brief interlude of five years immediately preceeding Allende, tax burdens rose from 14.6% of GDP in 1964 to a 19.7% share in 1969 (French-Davis, 1975). This represented a 35% increase overall. The efforts of income redistribution through tax or fiscal policies and other economic measures were also noticeably increased during the administration of Eduardo Frey (1965-1970), culminating in the agricultural reform. The political and ultimately economic implications of sharply increasing tax burdens and a sensitization of the population to inequities of wealth distribution because of greatly intensified activities to induce equalization became apparent when Chile transformed itself into a socialist state in 1970. The momentum was built under international pressure in the years preceding Allende. It is interesting to note the initial resistance among Chilean government officials to the agrarian reform and the fact that today, ironically, most of the peasants who had received land in the reform have already sold it. They did not have the required skills to use the land efficiently and gainfully under the intense foreign competition. Jointly with the agrarian reform, an extensive training program for the farmers would have been required, but Chile could ill afford the expenditure at the time, the redistribution of the land itself consituting an already costly effort.

Third-World Needs

Technical assistance programs should be sensitive to vulnerabilities, special needs, and particularly the different value system of small developing nations, which tend to overreact to the economic or social crisis that appear to arise with relative frequency. American universities, too, have an awesome responsibility as they educate students from the developing world. These students are exposed to our complex economic, fiscal, tax, and management policies, but special courses that would reintegrate the sophisticated tools and methods with their own countries' needs are seldom offered. This is a serious shortcoming of the American

university system. Foreign governments respect US education. Informed sources in Chile say that Pinochet, not being an expert in economics himself, relied totally on the quality of US Education when he appointed economists who, in this generation, were educated at the University of Chicago because of an exchange program between that school and the University of Chile. Chileans wonder whether this was simply a historical accident or whether the exchange program was arranged deliberately to expose the future government leaders to the ideas of unimpeded free markets of Milton Friedman (Ro, 1981). Because of institutional rigidities, a less extremist view is often more appropriate.

It would probably be desirable for businesses that operate in foreign environments to take a more active role in the economic policy formulations of their host governments. As businesses provide a large number of jobs, they contribute to society in an important way, and a business leader's advice is on the whole respected. Business managers also tend to be more pragmatic and less dogmatic than economists, sociologists, missionaries, or other professionals who get involved with Third-World problems. The latter tend to develop ways of producing social change in the foreign countries, whereas the business manager seeks to operate in harmony with the environment. By being sensitive to foreign value systems, managers have the best chance of protecting their investments and thus tend to support economic, fiscal, and tax policies that are not likely to interrupt the harmony. The stability within the foreign country is dear to business people who invest abroad. In light if recent developments in Latin America, Africa, and the Near East, the goal of helping to preserve the social stability in a foreign country may be the noblest goal of all. Ultimately, a society tends to reject those measures which do not reflect its indigenous value system. The defeat of the agrarian reform might serve as an example of such a happening.

The Painful Restructuring of the Chilean Economy

From the time the military junta of Augusto Pinochet assumed the reigns of the country in 1973 and until 1981, economic growth was generally good. Trade was liberalized, the borders were opened, duties were lowered from the 100% range to 10% overall, and inflation was reduced from the 500%-600% range to only 10% in 1981. But the price paid for these rapid changes, especially the dramatic lowering of tariffs within a short five-year time span, was high. An unemployment rate that topped at over 25% and the presence of a disturbingly large number of underemployed people have represented the most urgent economic problem of the country in the recent past. A pegged exchange rate made Chilean goods dear abroad and foreign imports inexpensive in Chile. This coupled with the rapid lowering of import duties caused grave disturbances in the balances of trade and payment. The vast number of

businesses that failed may be forever lost to the country, as new foreign investments re-enter Chile at a considerably slower pace. Since mid-1982, the peso floats freely against a small group of European, Japanese, and North American currencies, and this has brought some relief (Martin, 1982). Additionally, tariffs were raised more recently, and this helped alleviate some of the problems of unemployment.

Overall, the economic policies adopted by Chile in the last decade contained several aspects that appeared to be incongruent with the Pinochet Administration's publicly announced goals of enhancing the quality of life of the common citizens of Chilewithout converting them to western-style consumers. By tis emphasis on unrestricted free trade and its abstinence from all supports to indigenous agriculture and industry, it tended to promote indiscriminate consumption rather than to preserve the quality of consumption and working life, which would have been more enhanced if some barriers to non-priority consumption—as of luxury goods, automobiles, or highly processed foods—had remained in place while priority needs were still unsatisfied. Ultimately, it is the quality of life, not the quantity of material things of the individual citizens of a country that determines the level of wellbeing of a people. The traditional measures of a country's socio-economic progress, GNP growth rate or rate of increase of per-capita income, are poor surrogates for a primary quality-of-life measure.

Some laudable efforts have been made to develop quality-of-life indices capable of measuring the social progress of a country. The majority of these indices, however, still tend to reflect Western-World value systems to the detriment of indigenous values. Some suggested indices are too difficult to construct to be of practical value. There might be a real need to design suitable country-, region-, or culture-specific quality of life indices, in which health, nutrition, and the happiness of the citzenry should probably play an important role, aside from caloric consumption, child mortality, average life expectancy, literacy rates, or similar data. If such an index esixted, it could be employed to assess the effectiveness of a country's socio-economic programs, including its fiscal and tax policies. But absent such a tool, the traditional measures of socio-economic welfare are employed to assess social progress.

The Modernization of Chile's System of Taxation

The evolution of the Chilean tax structure was largely determined by two major reforms: those of 1964 and 1975. Both reforms were ambitious and pervasive. They brought in their wake considerable socio-economic disturbances, but they also resulted in a modern, rational system. Tax revenues come from three major sources: from direct, indirect, and external levies. Direct tax burdens, as in income and property taxation, fall upon specific taxpayers. Indirect taxes, as the production, excise, sales, or

value-added taxes, fall upon activities and are generally passed forward to the consumer in prices. External taxes on imports and on selected exports, which are often included with indirect taxes, are collected for the Treasury by the Customs Service rather than by the Internal Revenue. The effects of duty rates on the Chilean economic structure should not be underestimated. The protective tariffs of past administrations served to promote the industrilization of the country's economy. The all too rapid dismantling of the tax barriers in the recent past has been the primary cause of an agonizingly painful process: the restructuring of the Chilean economy, which caused endless numbers of labor-using businesses to falter and fail.

The major portion of the Chilean tax revenue today comes from indirect taxation with a mostly proportional rate structure. Over time, the relative importance of each tax source has fluctuated. When inflation increased, real yield from direct taxation generally declined due to the fact that there were no provisions for indexation in the tax laws (Ffrench-Davis, 1975).

Chile's direct taxes today consist of a tax on the First Category, which is assessed on income ffrom investments in stocks or bonds, on business income from industry or trade, including a surcharge on the distributable income of corporations, a tax on small investments and on other business income; and a tax on the Second Category, which applies on wages, salaries, and professional fees. Both types of taxes bear proportional rates. A supplementary tax, the "Global Complementario" (an overall complementary tax), makes no distinction between the sources of income ans is applied at progressive rates to the total of a person's income in excess of a minimum. The Global Complementario was designed to correct inequities that stemmed from proportional taxation. It complies with the vertical equity principle which requires that the tax burden increase progressively with ability to pay (Ministerio de Hacienda, 1977).

The income tax is an ill-appreciated and politically inexpedient tax, although its progressive rate structure has much theoretical appeal as a powerful redistributive mechanism of society's income. But it may not promote horizontal equity (equal treatment of taxpayers with equal income) because of various forms of tax avoidance through tax shelters, and it may have detrimental effects on propensity to save by making the financial rewards of current consumption more attractive to the taxpayer than the postponement of that consumption. For these and other reasons, the income tax in Chile ranks lower in revenue yield than the value-added-tax (VAT). But since Chile collects a greater proportion of total taxes in relation to its gross national product than do other countries in Latin America, the burden of the tax on the taxpayers is not insignificant. ("Los Impuestos," 1979).

In order to correct for possible omissions in payments under the Second Category tax, an "impuesto adicional" (additional tax) is charged those workers with wages or salaries from more than one firm and on foreign-company income that is repatriated. Altogether, income taxes account for about a fourth of all tax revenues. Property taxes furnish less than ten percent, the value-added tax (VAT) approximately 55%, and other indirect taxes account for the remaining 10%-15% of total tax revenues (SII, 1984).

Property taxes are raised, as in the United States, on real estate, automobile licenses, gifts, and inheritances. The inheritance tax accounts for only one tenth of one percent of all taxes collected. The theoretical justification for this tax can be found in the argument that wealth creates economic power (as the power to obtain credit); thus wealth bestows potential benefits upon the owner that are greater than the monetary income which the wealth produces or the sum of the previously taxed income constituting that wealth. Additionally, the taxation of property is presumed to increase the efficiency of its utilization. The taxation of farm land presumably provides incentives for more efficient agricultural production; the high tax on urban land provides incentives for construction.

The VAT is levied at an overall rate of 20% and is neutral between imported and locally produced goods. The absolute monetary amount, however, that was added to the goods which entered Chile with foreign government subsidies at unfairly low prices when import duties were only 10%, was smaller than the amount of VAT added to locally produced goods. In this sense, then, VAT was not neutral, since it charged the same basic good with different nominal amounts of tax depending on its source. The 20% rate is relatively high when compared to rates in effect in other countries that have introduced VAT, and the same 20% rate is charged (with very few exceptions) on practically all goods and services, whether produced locally or outside the country. Foodstuffs, medicine, or other basic necessities are not excluded from VAT nor do they command lower rates, as they sometimes do in other countries that have adopted VAT. Other indirect taxes, as those on judicial acts—the stamp tax and automobile or real estate transfer fees—are important from a revenue-raising standpoint only; they have no special function. ("Los Impuestos", 1979).

External taxes, on the other hand, in particular the import tax, have played an important role in Chile practically from independence, but their function has changed considerably over time. To the Great Depression of 1930, import duties provided the major portion of fiscal resources, thus were mainly a revenue-raising tool. Later they were used as the basic protective barrier against competition from abroad. The basic rate of duty

charged on imported goods was only 10% of their CIF (cost, insurance, and freight) value in the early part of this decade, and this situation led to a considerable increase in the volume of imports. After 1982, tariffs were slowly raised. They peaked at 35% in September of 1984 and are being slowly lowered to a target rate of 25% (BIC, 1985, p. 19).

The tax reform of 1975, through its simplification of the tax system, has resulted in more expeditious judicial handling of tax cases. Improved information processing techniques also enhanced the tax-administrative and collection procedures. The government estimates that at the end of the last decade approximately 15% of the real increase in revenues came from the control of evasion (SII, 1981).

Concluding Remarks

Until the first tax reform in 1964, the system was unwieldy and inflexible; it also contained many loopholes. The income tax consisted of six proportional-rate categories, which were reduced to two in 1964: the First and Second Category. Numerous specific taxes existed that were fixed in nominal terms and did not increase with inflation, and the reform of 1964, while it represented a considerable technical improvement of the tax system, included no provision to prevent the drop in real tax yeild in an inflationary setting. The deficit spending that had plagued earlier periods continued to be financed through foreign borrowings. But the tax reform did substantially simplify the system, and it also converted the State into an active agent in the economic development of the country (Ffrench-Davis, 1975). Before 1964, the tax system was mainly a revenue-raising tool, but the new program included a system for the redistribution of power, wealth, and income. The government hoped that the stabilization of prices would be achieved gradually, as the structural causes of inflation were to be removed. The aim was two-fold: on the revenue side, to provide economic incentives to the wealthier classes for increases in savings and investments; and (b) on the expenditure side, to increase fiscal spending on education, health, public works, housing for the poor, agrarian reform, and other public investments (Zahler, 1978, p. 208). But unfortunately, the conflicts that existed between the necessity of providing stimuli for private saving or investment on one hand and the need to redistribute income and wealth on the other were not reconciled. This was partly the fault of the international groups, such as the Alliance for Progress, the Inter-American Bank, the Organization of American States, and the Economic Commission for Latin America; their overwhelming emphasis on the redistribution of wealth was too dogmatic and probably could not realistically be reconciled with the need to foster the growth of the country's economy. A similiar mistake was repeated in the tax reform of 1975, when Chile gave into the international pressure to lower its import

duties. A more gradual opening of borders would have been less painful and therefore more appropriate for a small, vulnerable nation such as Chile.

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CRITICAL VIEWING SKILLS: EDUCATING ABOUT TELEVISION AND THROUGH TELEVISION

*by Charles F. Aust**

From the time of its arrival on the American scene, television has been the object of scrutiny, criticism and concern by parents, teachers, government officials and the television industry itself. Individuals and groups have tried with some success and some failure to change the content of television offerings.

Others, while agreeing with this approach, also wish to exert an influence on the consumers of this pervasive medium, especially children. That influence comes in the form of instructing the television viewer about effective and conscientious use of television based on adequate understanding of how television functions, what it offers, and the possible healthy and unhealthy impact it might be having. The following report will examine and encourage efforts to foster such instructions, particularly among children and educators. These instructions are commonly referred to as critical viewing skills (CVS).

Do Children Need Critical Viewing Skills?

Children acclimate to a visual world quickly, possibly as early as five months into life. They recognize photographs and drawings of people and objects. (Dirks and Gibson 124).

Aimee Dorr reports in a review of literature about children's cognitions, that as early as infancy, children "learn to recognize two-dimensional representations of their three-dimensional world." (Whitney and Abeles 194).

Watching television, a two-dimensional visual experience, seems to come naturally. Television also uses natural language skills. It can, without exhibiting a single printed letter, inform the viewer about feelings, values, motives and outcomes. To view television requires no print literacy skills. (Ploghoft and Anderson). It requires only the ability to hear sound, see images and understand verbally spoken words.

Yet voices are calling for education to teach children skills with which to watch television. Horace Newcomb, critic of television and professor of English at the University of Texas, argues:

> We should be educating children to deal critically with television . . . I think we should have television taught in public schools, K through 12, not on a year-long basis, but maybe four weeks here or six weeks there. Let's look at some shows, let's look at some ads, here's what's done, this is the kind of thing that's done with the camera . . . and to

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> get the kids involved with (television) . . . as they deal with literature. Be critical about what you see, be knowledgeable, I suppose, is the best word . . . (Himmelstein 106).

Do traditional skills that are taught in American schools help students deal with television? The superintendent of schools in Idaho Falls, Idaho, thinks not. Dr. James F. Parsley, Jr., oversaw a special project in his district to foster critical viewing skills in elementary grades. He suggests that educators and parents have falsely assumed schools equip students to use television content effectively. He states that "schools today are doing little, if anything, to equip students to be discerning consumers of televised communications or to develop critical thinking skills in general" (p. 29).

In addition, he says, parents and teachers are realizing that television is "the most powerful medium of communication and that school may actually be of secondary importance in influencing the lives of young people" (p. 28). In one self-report, teenagers ranked as most influential on them, the following sources: peers, parents, television and then teachers (Boyer 549).

Statistics are available which illustrate a pervasiveness of television in the lives of children in our current television era. Here is a sample:

> Young children aged 2-5 view an average of 27.5 hours a week. Children aged 6-11 view an average of 24.5 hours a week. Teenagers aged 12-17 view an average of 22 hours a week. The average high school graduate has spent 13,000 hours in school and 18,000 hours watching television. In the course of one typical year, the average child will have seen 25,000 commercials. (Van Dyck and Robbins 22)

Some critics of the education system and people with sincere concerns for children put heavy demands on the schools to reform maladjusted children and shape well-adjusted, optimally functioning children. Gerald Lesser, Harvard professor of education and developmental psychology, who has served as chairperson of the advisory board of Children's Television Workshop, the producers of "Sesame Street," makes a lucid rebuttal to such demands and suggests an approach:

> Educators cannot solve all the emotional problems of students. They cannot remedy the injustices to minorities in our society or create new life styles or new communities to replace deteriorating ones . . . Education should, however, be asked to teach children to understand symbols—to read, to calculate, to write, to communicate—and to use these symbols to reason logically and to solve problems. It might also be asked to convey some useful knowledge about what the world is like and how things operate within it. (p. 6-7)

And within the child's world, television holds a prominent spot. It would seem to make sense to equip children with the skills necessary to make

intelligent sense and use of this medium. Visual literacy of television is an important educational task, perhaps as vital to the development of human intelligence as the traditional curriculum. (Dondis 50)

Critical Viewing Skills Defined

The Yale University Family Television Research and Consultation Center, under the direction of Professors Dorthy and Jerome Singer, has defined critical viewing skills (CVS) to include the following goals:

1. To understand the different types of television programs, such as news, documentaries, variety, game shows, situation comedies, drama, etc.
2. To understand that programs are created by writers, producers, and directors, and utilize actors and actresses as well as scenery and props.
3. To understand how television works in terms of simple electronics.
4. To learn what aspects of a program are real, and how fantasy or pretend elements are created on programs or commercials through camera techniques and special effects.
5. To learn about commercials, their purpose and what kinds there are, such as public service announcements or political ads.
6. To understand how television influences our feelings, ideas, self-concept and identification.
7. To become aware of television as a source of information about other people, countries, occupations, and how politics, stereotypes are presented.
8. To examine violence on television with a view toward taking out false glamour. To become aware that we rarely see someone recovering slowly from an act of violence on television, or see the aggressor punished.
9. To encourage children to be aware of what they watch and how they can control their viewing habits, and how they can influence networks, producers, and local television stations. (VanDyck 38).

These goals for K-6 grade level would be expanded and elaborated upon for higher grades. It is evident that to maximize use and desired impact of television requires skills. Watching television in optimal ways requires attention to visual and/or audio elements of the message and requires higher levels of attention to effectively attend to the combined elements of visual, aural, and other non-verbal elements.(Ploghoft and Anderson 7).

The nature of viewing skills is "basic to the total language development of the individual. In fact the traditional skills of language arts are served quite well by educational activities designed to enhance viewing skills" (Ploghoft and Anderson 7).

CVS are meant to help the student use television in a critical, active and discriminating manner. They are not meant to decrease television viewing and increase reading. CVS lead to a personal, individualized response to the medium of television. This idea of personal management implies an active receiver involved in the communication process, who effectively uses the television medium. (Ploghoft and Anderson 8).

As part of its latest comprehensive investigation of television in America, the National Institute of Mental Health concluded that education of children about CVS "needs to be continued, expanded and evaluated" (Pearl 91).

Critical Viewing Skills in School Curricula

On the basis of these arguments it seems quite sensible to integrate CVS into a language arts curriculum. Message comprehension is a goal of both traditional language arts programs and CVS instruction. Language skills are not restricted to print media alone, but extend to the television medium. One important consideration is compatibility between the new curricular elements and the existing curriculum. Approaching the task of teaching CVS from the perspective of language arts might be one way to link these topics in a compatible way.

Another approach might be to teach CVS in conjunction with teaching of critical thinking skills. One such approach uses media topics within established subject areas, such as English. The teaching units examine issues such as:

- advertising appeals targeting on specific audiences and using specific persuasion devices
- objectivity versus bias in news sources
- media portrayals of groups, such as minorities, social classes or the sexes
- conservative versus liberal media coverage
- current issues in media, such as terrorism (Lewis 53).

In one specific instance, an English instructor at a university teaches a critical thinking course title "The Impact of Media" (Downs 16).

An early use of CVS occured in 1976 when the Baltimore (Maryland) Teachers Association and the Baltimore County Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) proposed to and convinced the board of education to make television viewing skills part of the school curriculum (Witherow 56GS).

Federal funds became available in the late 1970s for the development of CVS materials, curricula and workshops on four educational levels; elementary, middle school, high school and post-secondary. The U.S.

Office of Education (now the Department of Education) granted $1.6 million for this purpose (Witherow 56GC).

Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (SEDL) developed materials for elementary-school-age students which includes such aids as tour guides and road maps to television, interesting side trips and exercises to highlight viewing experiences, such as heavy regular viewing of one program. SEDL also designed a teacher's guide to help them incorporate television into coursework as an educational resource. Materials were developed to suggest applications in language arts, math, geography, history, science, health and social studies (Witherow 56GS).

WNET, a public television station in New York City, with nine years of research, testing and revision of CVS materials under its belt, developed a curriculum for middle grades. Using an already-developed department of critical viewing skills at the station, WNET brought in program producers, teachers, school administrators and parents for planning consultation. Workshop materials were designed to show teachers and parents how to use the curriculum tools in school and at home.

A high school curriculum was developed by Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development in conjunction with Boston television station WGBH's Office of Radio and TV for Learning. A text was produced called *Inside TV; A Guide to Critical Viewing*. The intent was to provide a one-semester elective using seven units that can be taught as a package or on a stand-alone basis. The four stated goals of the package were:

- evaluate and manage one's own television viewing behavior
- question the reality of television programs
- recognize the arguments employed on television and be able to counter-argue
- recognize effects of television on one's own life (Witherow 56GS).

The U.S. Department of Education added a fifth goal of enhancing family communication through activities at home including viewing logs, quizzes and values clarification exercises to discuss opinions and attitudes.

Boston University's School of Public Communication designed and produced a critical television viewing skills curriculum for adults and post-secondary students. The four major subject areas included: television and literacy, persuasive programming, entertainment programming and informational programming.

The National Council for Children and Television provided the following rationale for involving adults in CVS:

> Adult viewers, especially young members of our first Television Generation, have been given no method, no 'lexicon' for interpreting

the subtle visual and aural messages presented through television entertainment, news and advertising. In order for these viewers to become more responsible television program gatekeepers for their students or their children, they must be given a method for acquiring a better understanding of their own responses to telelvision messages. They must develop critical viewing skills and visual literacy—skills as crucial in this age of mass electronic media as verbal literacy was a century ago (Dondis 49).

Involvement of the Television Industry

The television industry has supported CVS both in and out of school settings. In March of 1978 CBS announced that it would join the national PTA to raise funds for a new PTA television initiative, "the production of a school curriculum for teaching television viewing skills to children " ("Strange Bedfellows").

The curriculum would include lesson plans, discussion questions, instructions for script development, videotapes and background material about the history of television. Plans were made to disseminate the package through the National Association of School Boards and School Administrators, the National Education Association and the National PTA.

Gene Jankowski, president of CBS/ Broadcast Group, issued a related statement saying:

> The American people should know more about television, both as an art form and as an industry. They should know the good and the bad and how to tell the difference. They should bring to television the same sense of understanding—and criticism—that they bring to other forms of communication ("Stange Bedfellows").

NBC and a group called Teachers Guides to Television (TGT) sponsored a series of workshops called "Parent Participation TV Workshops" involving schools, PTAs, church and community groups, colleges and universities in major cities across the nation. At the workshops, parents, teachers and discussion leaders discuss programs and share guidance about the use of television to help their children with such skills as decision-making, handling conflict and developing responsibility. TGT works in partnership with the Television Information Office, an organization of the National Association of Broadcasters ("Teachers Guides").

By June of 1980 ABC had already donated $350,000 to the Yale Family Television Research and Consultation Center of Professors Dorothy and Jerome Singer. The money was intended to support the development of a curriculum to teach elementary school children to become more "discriminating television viewers" ("ABC Sticking with . . . ").

Conclusion

Previously cited statistics indicate that children are typically heavy viewers of television. It should not be assumed that adults are knowledgeable about and teach their children CVS. Educators have been and could continue to be instrumental in educating children about their world, including the part of the world called television, by fostering understanding of the television medium and relating the content of this window on the world to any of the multitude of curriculum topics taught to America's school children. With assistance of various available resources described in this review, and compatible applications to existing curricular topics, students can learn essential knowledge traditionally taught in school and at the same time, learn about the most pervasive and highly influential medium in their lives.

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THE DEATH OF MAN AND THE BIRTH OF WRITING

*by John Micheal Crafton**

> Finally, if I am to rouse you to indignation that, after so many centuries of religious hypocrisy and philosophical bravado, nothing valid has yet been articulated on what links metaphor to the question of being and metonymy to its lack, there must be an object there to answer to that indignation both as its provocator and its victim: it is humanistic man and the credit, affirmed beyond reparation, which he has drawn on his intentions.
>
> —Jacques Lacan, "The Insistence of the Letter in the Unconscious"

Humanistic man has indeed been drawing on his credit for some time in theories of writing and reading or, as it is termed now in one word, textuality. He has been drawing now with little collateral and his stock has been emptied in the massive projects of divestiture operating from the French banks, left as always, especially those under the name of poststructuralism. He has been drawing and doodling for his credit, to establish his credentials, and to manifest his credo, in the watery sands of discourse and caught too often embarassed at his own gouging, searching for an essence that would at best be a mirror of his own gouging. Paradoxically, of course, the image would be reversed and thus, for a humanism of an orthodox variety, wrong, the going and coming of the stylus eradicating each other in a reflection that by its nature and definition ends progress. As even a child after groping too long for the other in the mirror drops his hand in frustration and leaves this primal scene of writing for another form of constructive activity, that being of course play, so also must we in composition theory give up the mirror and get back to the issue of play.[1]

[1]**Play** is a complicated term in modern textural theory. One finds it or something very similar to it in the works of nearly every poststructuralist. While we must allow the term its ambiguity, if we are to appreciate the serpentine nature of poststructuralist philosophy, a few often used definitions are as follows: (1) dramatism or plays within plays (2) movement, tolerance, freedom from friction (3) nonseriousness (4) role playing (5) substitution, pretending, standing in, metaphor (6) deferral, teasing (7) foreplay to pleasures of textuality.

Before staging any playful pursuits in this essay, however, the gates to the scene must be established. These gates situate themselves on the question of the role of metaphor and being, but more colloquially on the

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role of being in the pedagogy of composition. In composition theory being often serves as a metonym for the self or subject which is a useful center for attaining totalization. The self totalizes its discourse, it controls or owns it, just as the concept of being as presence or logos also totalizes the field of existence or meaning (Derrida, *Grammatology* 27-73). American theorists of the sixties were the most notorious in asserting that the self is inviolable, free and, if left alone, basically creative. Thus from this ethos in composition studies teachers were given methodologies of free writing, truthful writing, biographical, expressive, poetic, democratic and various other sorts of "honest" writing. These theories managed to indulge in a great deal of playing around in the forms of role playing and meditating but all in the service of "serious introspection." Very often teachers demanded that their students' texts represent a true and/or real self. Although teaching from truth, these instructors watched the level of literacy gradually decline. Yet little guilt was felt in pedagody because the theory rested on the bedrock of the self, founding a theory without play, firm and "true."

Poststructuralist theory (here I'm principally concerned with Derrida and Lacan) wants to insert the element of play into this discourse about discourse because it finds no center on which or by which play can be resisted. It finds no center because what has been considered the center in composition studies, the consolidated self, Subject, or ego, has all but evaporated in recent semiotically inspired thinking. This recent thinking boldly announces the death of the self, the subject and the author. Again, Lacan:

> For a long time thinkers, searchers, and inventors who were concerned with the question of the mind, have over the years put forward the idea of unity as the most important and characteristic trait of structure . . . The idea of the unifying unity of the human condition has always had on me the effect of a scandalous lie [partly because] the unconsciousness has nothing to do with instinct or primitive knowledge or preparation of [unified] thought in some underground. It is a thinking with words, with thoughts that escape your vigilance, your state of watchfulness. ("Of Structure" 189-190)

> The speaking subject, if he seems to be thus a slave of language, is all the more so of a discourse in the universal moment of which he finds himself at birth, even if only by dint of his proper name . . . for the primary reason that language and its structure exist prior to the moment at which each individual at a certain point in his mental development makes his entry into it. ("Letter" 289)

Man's meaning or "signification is a function of a certain language [parole], which is and isn't the language of the subject—he receives this language ready-made, he is a relay for it" (Lecan, *Le seminaire Livre II* [1978] cited in Racevskis 33). This order determining man's meaning, what

Lacan calls the Symbolic, in turn creates a second order, the Imaginary, "the order in which the subject develops a consciousness centered in itself" (Racevskis 33). The third and final order is the Real and of which "there is no direct apprehension" (Gallop 70). If the subject is resituated according to decentering philosophy in the structure of language or a language-like unconsciousness, then why does it die?

Derrida in his simplest formulations explains that language is structure without center and without totalization.

> Thus it has always been thought that the center, which is by definition unique, constituted that very thing within a structure which governs the structure, while escaping structurality. This is why classical thought concerning structure could say that the center is, paradoxically, **within** the structure and **outside** it. The center is to the totality (is not a part of the totality), the totality **has its center elsewhere**. The center is not the center . . . The concept of centered structure is in fact the concept of a freeplay based on a fundamental ground, a freeplay which is constituted upon a fundamental immobility and a reassuring certitude, which is itself beyond the reach of the freeplay. If totalization no longer has any meaning, it is not because the infinity of a field cannot be covered by a finite glance or a finite discourse, but because the nature of the field—that is, language and a finite language—excludes totalization. This field is in fact that of **freeplay**, that is to say, a field of infinite substitutions in the closure of a finite ensemble. This field permits these infinite substitutions only because it is finite, that is to say, because instead of being an inexhaustible field, as in the classical hypothesis, instead of being too large, there is something missing from it: a center which arrests and founds the freeplay of substitutions. ("Structure, Sign and Play" 248, 260)

Lacan reworks this same problematic by re-inscribing the center within a revision of Freud's concept of the unconscious, which Lacan calls the discourse of the Other. This discourse produces the Subject and thus neccessarily implies its transindividual reality.

Where this decentered Subject and freeplay lead us in composition theory is a movement back to classical rhetoric and away from the quasi-Romantic pedagogy of the inviolable or consolidated self, a reversal which in turn creates a mirror image of the parodic paradigm of sixties pedagogy mentioned earlier. Thus, the reversed picture—the mirror image—is of a stricter, perhaps more austere, version of methodologies but with a flexible and play-centered theory.

The notion of playful theories should not evoke an image of drunken Parisians speculating about their various axioms of Bacchic behavior, but rather should return us to an understanding of theory at once pragmatic

and artistic. Play is necessary in language as it is in machines and organisms. It allows movement or growth and thus reduces friction. If the Subject is an effect of language and thus of freeplay, its governing notions will be made slippery by the same lubricant. Our most proud abstractions are at bottom metaphorical, figures of disclosure that hide as much as they reveal (Derrida, "White Mythology"). Even the word **theory** shares its etymology with the sign for theater (Greek **theasthai** "to observe"). Each play is itself a paradigm, a lexical group, some more effective than others, only one winning the prize, but not necessarily more true. Aristotle's formulation of rhetoric is based upon the spectacle of orations he witnessed created by the dramatists and the Sophists, and as such they emphasize the theatrical element also, orations being dramatic events. The self or transcendental truth had nothing to do with it, only the effectiveness of the presentations in a particular instance. The knowledge used in these instances was phronetic, that is, useful in winning the prize. Likewise, the transcendental Subject was of little interest here. Aristotle's famous ethical appeal resides not in the speaker but in the language he uses. He asserts in Book I of the *Rhetoric*, "The character [ethos] of the speaker is a cause of persuasion when the speech is so uttered as to make him worthy of belief" (8). The language must create an image for that audience of what it would consider to be the best image in that particular instance. So Aristotle locates his desciption of rhetorical acts without any founding concept of truth and Subject, following in one sense his predecessor Gorgias, whose founding concept, you will remember, was that nothing exists.[2]

[2]Textual evidence suggests that Aristotle most likely did not compose his book on rhetoric, but rather is was compiled from student lecture notes. Since Aristotle sees rhetoric as existing in an interaction between dialectic and poetics, he perhaps did not consider a book of rhetoric even possible.

Aristotle knew, as did Shakespeare that the play is everything and thus asserts the truth of dramatism for composition classes. They cannot be viewed as classes of subject matter in which a teacher lectures on the truths of the subject. According to some modern composition theorists, "there is simply nothing to lecture about" (Knoblauch and Brannon 102). There are only performances and techniques to be mastered as they are needed. While utilizing more play, these classes should be more rigorous in day-to-day activity because the techniques of basic acceptable dialect and rudimentary logic must be well polished, and there should be much practice. The basic writing class if working from a death of Subject philosophy must operate as an ongoing play staged in a classroom which can be rearranged slightly and with characters who play their roles as students who want to write but who cannot and one who plays the teacher, functioning as both a limited actor and limited director. The arche-play generally follows a pattern wherein he is the master, shaman, king who

possesses, in Lacanian psychoanalysis, the phallus of total signification. Those who would speak must then kill off the father/king and gain their own phallus. However, in the death of man school, the phallus of signification, has already been removed and there is no control of signification, all controls or centers have been always already decentered. The initiates then must develop from their naive stance of waiting for totalization to accepting the absence of the phallus. They must alter their desire to possess signification—or their **mauvais foi** of already possessing it but being unrecognized—to an awareness that it is signification that possesses them, that creates them, and that is the only avenue to writing.

The role of this kind of father is that of the Lacanian psychoanalyst who does not believe in a cure or even Freud's "talking cure" (Schneiderman 49-64). My view is that the teacher/psychoanalyst will try to effect a "writing cure" (both meaning a cure for writing and a cure for students) by being made aware of the importance of both the sex and death drives of the psyche. Freud's concept of Thanatos not only includes our failures and will do damage ourselves along with others but also a recognizable state of adult consciousness, the desire for peace and nirvana, "a drive to reduce stimulation/tension to zero" (Gallop 180). Both the will to tear and to sew are tied in with the death drive. The desire for death can be effectively maintained only by sewing, or by putting it off, creating a greater moment of consummation. Accordingly, writing is one of the supreme ways of engaging in the death drive because as the words fall to the page, much as dead cells, they remind us of life force falling out and moving us more rapidly to the bottom of the page and downward into darkness. The dissemination of words is connected with death just as the dissemination of semen has been (*le petit mort*). Since the fear of death has to be overcome in order to engage in healthy sexuality, it follows that this fear must be removed for those who would write. Acceptance of the desire for death is therefore a necessary prelude to composition. What better father could there be to educate the novitiates than the anti-father of a Lacanian who believes that we are to a certain symbolic extent already dead anyway. The "writing cure" involves the King's handing the blade to Hamlet and making him thrust—yet only to reveal that both knife and King are stage props or reflections in the order of the Imaginary.

One last note on this method or spectacle of teaching composition is that Lacan specifies that although his psychoanalysis is not about "curing"—there being no such thing really—it is about talking and giving in to language. For Lacan this involves persuading the analyis and to accept the Symbolic order as the basis for the Imaginary. This Imaginary order is created in the child by what Lacan calls the mirror stage.

> The Imaginary leads us to think that we are in direct touch with reality, that we are in full possession of our knowledge, and that we

> can grasp the truth of our Selves. This truth is no more than a lure, of course, since we find it in a mirror: the identity that we gain in the Imaginary is given to us by others, it is an objectification centered upon the evidence of a conscious that is inevitably subject to a network of determinants already in place. The self is thus a mirage and its relation to the world in which it sees itself reflected is constantly undermined by uncertainty . . . An awareness of the Symbolic order can therefore be seen as a corrective, because it promulgates notions of exchange and reciprocity; it introduces relativity and reversibility in value systems that have solidified in the Imaginary; and it founds the subject's existence in the context of a relation with the Other, not the name of truth. (Racevskis 34, 37)
>
> Lacan's writings contain an implicit ethical imperative to break the mirror, an imperative to disrupt the imaginary in order to reach "the symbolic"—which for Lacan is the register of language, social exchange, and radical intersubjectivity—would be the locus of dialogue. (Gallop 59-60)

The writing cure likewise moves the student through a process of what I call de-individuation, in a revision of Jung, of putting the Imaginary order apart to lay bare the filaments of linguistic existence which give the Subject the ostensible order that it has. Thus, untying some of these knots to allow more freeplay within that order of consciousness by removing some of the constraints that the Imaginary imposes on creativity. Perhaps the case of the humanist gouging in the sand is hopeless, but the child can be made to pass behind the mirror and be made to enjoy the play of writing while in the play of life and, in the movement toward death and the activities forestalling it, learn that his writing when seeking for or while subscribing to a transcendental truth is less effective than when it merely strives to make his fellows laugh or cry or stop gouging around in the sand.

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PRAGMATISM, ARGUMENTATION, AND THE POST-PHILOSOPHIC CULTURE

*by Steven Meredith Garmon**

American pragmatism, which had been neglected in philosophic circles following John Dewey's death in 1952, is receiving renewed attention through the work of Richard Rorty. Rorty's 1982 book, *Consequences of Pragmatism*, identified pragmatism with a call for post-Philosophic culture *(xiii-xlvii)*. I shall give a skeletal description of the defining attitutes of this post-Philosophic culture, and then flesh out the account by describing the nature of argumentation in such a culture. Finally, as a clarifying device, I shall broadly consider one major criticism leveled at pragmatism. The general point I want to make is that pragmatism can be explained as the replacing of traditional philosophy with a theory of argument in which the justification of a claim is culturally and linguistically based.

Rorty distinguishes between Philosophy and philosophy. Philosophy-with-a-capital-p means "following Plato's and Kant's lead, asking questions about the nature of certain normative notions (e .g., 'truth,' 'rationality,' 'goodness') in the hope of better obeying such notions" (*Consequences xv*). But we no longer need to follow that lead and ask those questions. Small-p philosophy, on the other hand, means "simply what Sellars calls 'an attempt to see how things, in the broadest possible sense of the term, hang together, in the broadest possible sense of the term'" *(Consequences xiv)*. The exploration of relations between ideas, rather than the quest for an objective grounding for ideas, is the only type of philosophy we need. In the post-Philosophic culture, true beliefs will not be seen as those which accurately represent a reality independent of human purposes. Rather, the standards of the community—whether the broad popular community or the narrower academic or professional community—would be seen as the only standards available for assessing what to believe. "Accurate representations" in this culture will mean "simply an automatic and empty complement which we pay to those beliefs which are successful in helping us do what we want to do" (*Mirror of Nature* 10). "Objective" will refer to "characterizing the view which would be agreed upon as a result of argument undeflected by irrelevant considerations" (*Mirror of Nature* 333-34). In areas where no agreement seems likely, even though discussants are "undeflected by irrelevant considerations," then "objective" could only be a reference to the hope of eventual consensus (*Mirror of Nature* 335). A "subjective" consideration would then be understood as

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> one which is seen to be, or should be seen to be, irrelevant to the subject matter of the theory. To say that someone is bringing in "subjective" considerations to a discussion where objectivity is wanted is, roughly, to say that he is bringing in considerations which the others think beside the point. (*Mirror of Nature* 338-39)

A post-Philosophic culture would hold that "accurate representation," "objective," and "subjective" never have amounted to more than these Rortian definitions, and that we don't need anything more.

The pragmatist has thus given up on the idea of self-evident intuitions, *a priori* frameworks, or a permanent human nature. She has no proof that these things do not exist. Rather, she notes that since Plato Philosophy has sought ahistorical forms of truth, and the search has been fruitless. What Philosophers *have* accomplished are some brilliant commentaries on their own culture. The pragmatist takes the moral of this story to be that culture-bound, "ethnocentric" commentary is all we can get.

In the post-Philosophic culture the study of argument would be a kind of sociology—the practices and standards to which members of actual, concrete communities refer when they argue would be the object of study rather than ideals of logic within abstractly conceived fields of discourse. Thomas Kuhn is supporting this view when he argues that it is the community of scientists which is the starting point for understanding the way that inquiry works — "paradigms" come later. "Scientific communities," he writes, "can and should be isolated without prior recourse to paradigms; the latter can then be discovered by scrutinizing the behavior of a given community's members" (176). While individual geniuses may spark scientific revolutions, Kuhn sees scientists' contributions as always relative to a community: "Both normal science and revolutions are, however, community-based activities. To discover and analyze them, one must first unravel the changing community structure of the sciences over time" (179). And the thing which members of a community "share that accounts for the relative fullness of their professional communication and the relative unanimity of their professional judgements" is not anything ahistorical or transcultural. It is not more than whatever "disciplinary matrix" the community endorses (182).

The post-Philosophic culture, then, would reject the view that argument is the attempt to prove that a conclusion follows logically from indubitable premises. Pragmatists doubt that there can be any "indubitable premises." Nothing is certain. As Wilfred Sellars notes, "science is rational not because it has a *foundation* but because it is a self-correcting enterprise which can out *any* claim in jeopardy, through not all once" (170). In the post-Philosophic culture this view of the rationality of science would apply to all subjects of argument. Argument would be the tying of a claim to

social standards—the attempt to connect a controversial assertion with beliefs which are not, for the time being, in question. The role of indubitable premises is taken by whatever opinions the disputants happen to agree on. And to say a conclusion "follows logically" is only to say that the argument does, in fact, garner assent.

The propositions to which we assent—our beliefs—can be seen as forming a network, with connections between propositions existing whenever one proposition seems to us to imply another. The meaning of any proposition lies in its direct and indirect connections with other propositions. Some beliefs are more central than others; they connect up with a greater number of other beliefs. Peripheral beliefs can be changed with relatively little re-weaving of the belief network, but central beliefs are much more difficult to change and require modifying many other beliefs. In cases where central social practices are called into question, the claim would have to be tied to either still more central beliefs or to a large number of less central beliefs which would collectively constitute strong "grounds." A more formal definition of argument which the post-Philosophic culture would endorse, then, would be something like: an exchange of views seeking to establish relationships between a claim and those social beliefs not questioned in the particular exchange.

All arguments must therefore be, in some sense, circular; the assumptions which we call upon to justify a claim can always be found question-begging by radical skeptics. This view of argument can be made more clear by seeing how Rorty answers the problem of the infinite regress. This problem is that if we justify one proposition by citing a "deeper," "truer," or more self-evident proposition as support, then we shall never end the need to find ever more self-evident truth. As Charles Willard put it, "If you try to stop the infinite regress by embracing a standard, I shall confront you with an incomensurable standard from another field to buttress the demand that you further justify your stopping point. And so on—forever" (27-28). For pragmatists, however, this regress is only a problem if it is what Rorty calls "vertical":

> Whether one thinks of this regress as going down in search of the Deepest or up the ladder of logical types in search of the Highest is less important than what I shall call the *vertical* character of both searches. This character consists in the fact that one looks at each new step as a transition to a new level—a level which is a necessary condition for the existence of the previous step . . . Such a regress can be constrasted with what I shall call a *horizontal* one, in which each new step gives us something which is of essentially the same kind as what we had at the last, but something which renders the last step more determinate than it was. ("Pragmatism" 219)

The principle of horizontal infinite regress only says that we can always do more explaining, more tying in of some ideas to other ideas. The more we draw these connections, the more "determinate" the idea becomes, i.e. the more we know about it. Scholarly investigation, for instance, will never end; there will always be more connections to be drawn between ideas. Unlike vertical regress, however, ideas are not tied to more certain or self-evident ideas. Rather, horizontal regress searches for more and new connections among our ideas. Since these connections define an idea, ideas themselves evolve as more and different connections are drawn. The new ideas, in turn, serve as points for further connection and re-connection.

Argument, then, goes on forever, realigning and redefining knowledge. This is not a problem with the pragmatic view of argument, however, because "reference to action . . . can take place at any step in the eternally incomplete series of interpretations" ("Pragmatism" 223). The need to act produces temporary stopping places. By making regress "horizontal," pragmatism renders infinite regress unproblematic.

A major criticism of pragmatism's cultural ideal is that it offers no account of coercion, oppression and injustice, and thus fails to offer any way to prevent or alleviate these problems. This criticism comes from liberals who fear that if we abandon the idea that our liberal democratic institutions can be grounded in permanent truths about the nature of humans, society, or the world, then we will be unable to defend those institutions. To give up the hope of conclusive, knock-out arguments that our institutions better reflect the way humans were "meant" to live, on this view, is to leave our way of life intellectually defenseless against tyrants.

It is essentially the same criticism that comes from more radical writers who do not support liberal democratic institutions, and seek a normative grounding against which to identify the characteristics of more just, less oppressive social structures. Ideology and power, these writers say, will continue, in a post-Philosophic culture, to determine how a community argues, what it argues, and which arguments will be successful.

The pragmatist, I think, must agree that the social and linguistic bases of all our knowledge can be thought of in terms of power and ideology. "'Power' and 'culture' are equipollent indications of the social forces which make us more than animals—and which, when the bad guys take over can turn us into something worse and more miserable than animals" (Rorty, *Consequences* 208). Pragmatists, *qua pragmatists*, see no way around this. "Culture" (or, more darkly, "power"), gives us the only truths we can know. Pragmatists, however, follow Michel Foucault's suggestion that power is not intrinsically repressive, "because, roughly, there is no naturally good self to repress" (Rorty, *Consequences* 208). We must hope power can be unoppressive, at any rate, because the only alternatives are to despair or to bring back in some sort of self-evident intuition, some ahistorical truth.

Recent attempts to brcket out culture/ideology—e.g. Habermas's "ideal speech situation" or Rawls's "original position"—necessarily depend on some self-evident intuition about what constitutes coercion or injustice. The pragmatist, however, sees all intuitions as implications of some optional vocabulary. If we could, somehow, bracket out all culture, what would be left could say nothing to us, for to speak is to bring in the cultural assumptions of the language. We could conduct careful observation of such a cultureless being, of course, but cases like the wolf-boy are not likely to tell us much about how to construct a just society.

Granted, many twentieth-century intellectuals do have such intuitions about coercion as are required to construct the ideal speech situation, and do intuit the reasonability of the choices of Rawls says actors in the original position would make. But there is nothing ahistorically self-evident about these intuitions. The "rational consensus" that emerges from the ideal speech situation meets our view of rational, but not Plato's or Aquinas's. The notion of justice we would choose in the original position is our view of justice but may have little relationship to the operative notion of justice of some fabulously happy future society. Critiques of Habermas to the effect that the consensus growing out of an ideal speech situation may sometimes be irrational, or of Rawls that his view of justice would not be chosen in an original position, already expose the optional, non-self-evident quality of the intuitions.

The admission that our view of the good life is historically situated, however, takes away none of our arguments on its behalf. In abandoning the expectation that we will one day find a conclusive, once-and-for-all way to settle the matter, we need give up neither the search for arguments our opponents will find cogent not any of the actual arguments with which to defend or critique liberalism. Practical advantages rather than theoretical groundings are the proper focus of political debate, so we lose no argumentative potency by becoming post-Philosophic.

Moreover, the chances for success for any concrete proposal for emancipation would seem to be increased in a post-Philosophic culture. If a practical alternative with greater advantages than disadvantages can be presented, the chances of the success of that alternative are increased because a society that does not see its institutions as grounded in eternal truth sees no reason not to entertain proposals for change. Captialist institutions, for instance, are still implicitly supported by reference to "the way the world really is." Adam Smith's "invisible hand" is taken as a metaphoric description of objective reality. Pragmatists, however, see the notion as part of one more circular argument within one one optional vocabulary, so they are less attached to it.

Finally, proposals for emancipation can be thoughtfully considered and even adopted without reference to normative groundings. Such normative

groundings for liberation as those of Marx or Habermas grow out of a prior recognition of some existing, concrete oppression or coercion. Pragmatists suggest that if we have that recognition (historically situated as it is), we have all that we need to go about looking for ways to alleviate the problem. If we intuit, for example, coercion of dialogue, then we will praise measures that reduce that coercion. To go from there to the assertion that the "ideal speech situation" is a "critical standard in terms of which any proposed set of basic social norms can in principle be assessed" (White 170), makes sense only if it means that whenever a society has our problems and our purposes it will recognize the same sorts of things as possible solutions to consider. Habermas, Marx, Rawls, and other political Philosophers can be read as offering relatively concrete advice on how to organize our institutions so that we can get more of what we want from them. A post-Philosophic culture would not rule out any such advice. The additional matter, the attempt to offer transcultural groundings, is only a rather empty complement to our social purposes. It is like the wheel that Wittgenstein refers to when he says that "a wheel that can be turned though nothing else moves with it, is not part of the mechanism"(95, I, sec. 271).

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ABSTRACTS OF MASTER'S THESES AND SPECIALIST IN EDUCATION PROJECTS

REMEDIAL MATHEMATICS FOR THE UNDERPREPARED STUDENT

Jimmy Daniel Allen

(EdS, Secondary Education, June, 1985)

Some evidence has suggested that beginning college chemistry students are lacking in the mathematical skills necessary for adequate success in college chemistry. This study was designed to assess college instructors' perceptions that this problem exists and to what degree their beliefs compare with the math deficiencies inherent among a sample of high school chemistry students.

A questionnaire was sent to 269 chemistry professors across the Southeast. Results indicated the chemistry teachers believe that beginning chemistry students are underprepared and are in need of remedial mathematics.

A test of basic math skills was administered to 126 high school chemistry and physics students at Calhoun High School in Calhoun, Georgia. Results showed that students were deficient in nine of the 12 skills tested.

A test for correlation between the two revealed that a negative correlation exists. This meant that students performed better on the objectives which college professors believed were most important and in need of remediation.

THE EFFECTS OF SUCCESS IN READING AND WRITING ON STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD READING

Denise Beaudoin (EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1985)

This study was undertaken to investigate the possible change in students' attitudes toward reading by using *Success in Reading and Writing* in a Whitfield County Elementary School during the school term 1984-1985. The problem of the study was to discover if the program had an effect on students' reading attitude. Data from 60 students randomly selected from the fourth- and fifth-grades were analyzed. This data consisted of pretest and posttest scores on *A Reading Attitude Inventory for Elementary School Pupils* by Lewis. *Success* uses the uncontrolled vocabulary of the students; teaches each child a decoding method that helps him to read any word in the language; fosters the reading of library books; familiarizes the students with the different types of textbooks; and provides daily spelling and creative writing experiences. The results of this study, tested by t-test

at the .05 level of significance indicated a significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores on the reading inventory. The difference of the fourth-grade scores was significant and positive; however the difference of the fifth-grade scores was significant but negative. These findings indicate that there are many factors which influence a student's attitudes toward reading.

AN ATTITUDAL STUDY OF THE USE OF THE GEORGIA CRITERION-REFERENCED TEST FOR PUPIL PLACEMENT IN BREMEN, GEORGIA

Hildred L. Bell (EdS, Middles Grades Education, December, 1985)

The study was conducted to determine the opinions of third-, fourth-, and sixth-grade students, the parents of these students, and the 36 teachers at H.A. Jones Elementary School in Bremen, Georgia, concerning the use of the Third Grade Criterion-Referenced Test as a Criterion for promotion or retention. Three hypotheses were proposed. One hypothesis examined the differences in the percentage of item responses among students, parents, and teachers. Two null hypotheses were proposed which compared responses of low achieving students with average and high achieving students, and parents of low achieving students and high parents of high achieving students. Data obtained through the responses on a questionnaire were analyzed using chi square analysis. The .05 level of significance was established as the level at which the null hypotheses would be rejected.

The results indicated that there was no significant difference in opinion between low achieving students when compared to average and high achieving students. There was no significant difference in opinion between parents of low achievers and parents of average and high achievers. In the overall comparison of students, parents, and teachers, there was a high percentage of agreement that the Third Grade Georgia Criterion-Referenced Test should be the criterion for promotion or retention.

JOHN BARRINGTON WAIN: EXPERIMENTAL POET

Shirley Williams Bockford (MA, English, August, 1985)

John Barrington Wain, graduate of St. John's College, Oxford, participant in "The Movement" of the 1950's, is a widely recognized man of letters, who was elected Oxford Professor of Poetry from 1973-1978. Although he has published works in all genres and is best known as a novelist, his outlook on life and writing classifies him as a poet, and as such he has published nine volumes of poetry. He is an experimental poet who abhors being labeled. In his early poetry he experimented with tercets and established verse forms, but his more recent efforts have been to develop a "voice" that is at once public and private. He prefers short Anglo-Saxon

words and concrete imagery taken from ordinary experience. A strong individualist and humanist, Wain is a stoic whose moral stance communicates his belief in the realities of experience and his faith in the power of poetry to lift man up.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN EVALUATION INSTRUMENT FOR MIDDLE GRADE ENGLISH COMPOSITIONS

Donna Daniela Bookhardt, EdS, Secondary Education, August, 1985)

The purpose of this study was to develop an effective evaluation instrument for English composition in middle-grade classes and to train teachers to use the instrument reliably.

Ideas and suggestions for this study were obtained from language arts educators. Various assessment systems were researched with special attention to the works of Paul B. Diederich, Charles R. Cooper, and Lee Odell. The MSACS (Middle-School Analytic Composition Scale) was developed and submitted to middle-grade language arts teachers for survey response. The finished instrument was renamed the BSC (Bookhardt Composition Scale). This scale includes two principal sections, GENERAL FACTORS and CONTROL FACTORS, with nine feature qualities for assessment. The scale has a four-point rating range with low to high ratings of INADEQUATE, ACCEPTABLE, NOTABLE, and OUTSTANDING.

Instrument reliability was tested in teacher-training sessions. Five experienced language arts teachers representing grades six, seven, and eight rated and rank-ordered sets of compositions in both monitored and independent training sessions. Inter-rater reliability of W= .84 was reached after three trials. Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance for agreement among ranks was used for data treatment.

Conclusions from this study indicate that the BSC is a reliable analytic scale appropraite for middle-school use and that language arts teachers can be trained to use the instrument effectively. Specific recommendations for further study include initiating a school-wide/county-wide writing program with an integrated assessment system including the BCS.

DOCTOR'S ORDERS: A STUDY OF WILLINGNESS TO CHANGE EATING HABITS

Delores Morris Bradley (MA, Psychology, December, 1985)

The purpose of this study is to ascertain a measure of willingness or unwillingness of a group of college students (N=42) and the general public (N=44) to change their dietary practices. The survey form used in this study is comprised of questions regarding eating habits requiring a Yes or No answer. Under each Yes or No answer a separate section of "reasons for the

response" is included. Additional questions have been formulated to allow a view of certain health-related habits of the participants such as cigarette smoking, exercise, drinking of alcoholic beverages and diet.

This study seeks to determine: (1) If the participant has ever been advised by his/her physician to change any poor eating habits he/she may have or go on a diet for any reason. (2) What would facilitate a change in his/her diet, or make the process easier and, (3) if a change in eating habits is necessary what factor would be most influential in effecting such modification?

The most significant finding of this study is that a published study or report will not impact as significantly on the willingness of an individual to alter his/her poor eating habits as would the advice of a physician. That is, the personal or family doctor is seen as an authority so far as influencing an individual to change any non-nutritious or hazardous eating habits is concerned. Moreover, this finding appears to hold without regard for the amount of education one has.

AN ASSESSMENT OF THE ALLOCATED INSTRUCTIONAL TIME FOR ONE CLASS OF FOURTH-GRADE STUDENTS

Dallas Ann Dennis (EdS, Middle Grades Education, March, 1986)

The study was conducted to determine the relationship between instructional time and noninstructional interruptions in one fourth grade class in an elementary school in a suburban county. Nine research questions were used in evaluating the research.

During the fourth week of school an observer was in the classroom daily from 8:00 a.m. until 2:30 p.m. The observer recorded the length of all interruptions in the appropriate categories on the prepared checklist.

The investigation revealed a loss of more than 51% of the allocated instructional time due to interruptions. The category of interruptions showing the greatest loss was transition with more than twelve percent.

CROSS-AGE TUTORING: A NEW ROLE FOR LAST-BORNS AND ONLY CHILDREN AND ITS EFFECTS ON READING ACHIEVEMENT

Evelyn B. Farr (EdS, Middle Grades Education, June, 1985)

The study was conducted to determine any effects of cross-age tutoring on the reading achievement of fourth-, fifth- and sixth-grade Compensatory Education Reading Program students at North Fayette Elementary School in Fayetteville, Georgia. Three hypotheses were proposed. Data regarding grade, group, pretest and posttest scores for 32 students were analyzed using the t-Test for Independent Samples.

No significant differences in reading achievement were found for the fourth-, fifth and sixth-grade students who tutored younger students as compared to the fourth-, fifth and sixth-grade students who did not tutor younger students.

THE EFFECT OF SELF-CONCEPT ON ACHIEVEMENT IN TENTH GRADE REMEDIAL MATHEMATICS CLASSES

Claudia P. Harmon (EdS, Secondary Education, December, 1985)

This study was designed to determine what effect, if any, will efforts to improve students' self-concepts have on the enhancement of the mathematical skills needed to attain a passing score on the Georgia Basic Skills Test (BST) in Mathematics.

Subjects used in this study were twenty-two students enrolled in a mathematics course developed to enhance mathematics skills needed to attain a passing score on the BST in Mathematics. During the seven-week instructional period, the control group received remedial instruction in basic mathematical skills as recommended by the Georgia Department of Education, while the treatment group received the same remedial instruction in an enrichment environment designed to enhance an individual's self-concept. The treatment period for the experimental group was a fifty-five minute class period which met daily.

For evaluation purposes, the March 20, 1984, administration of the Georgia Basic Skills Test (BST) in Mathematics and a facsimile of the BST were used as the pretest and the posttest, respectively, to assess the achievement gains in mathematics. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale was administered as a pretest and posttest to assess any changes in self-concept.

A t-test was computed to ascertain any significant statistical differences in achievement in mathematics for each group. A t-test was computed to determine any significant differences in self-concept for each group.

The two null hypotheses stated that there would be no significant differences between the two groups. The simple analysis of covariance was computed to determine the correlation between the achievement gains in mathematics and the gain in self-concepts.

There was no significant difference shown on achievement gain in mathematics at the .05 level of significance for either group. There was no significant difference shown in the gain in self-concepts at the .05 level of significance in either group. There was no significant differences between the pretest mean and the posttest mean within either the control group or the treatment group as measured by the BST in Mathematics. There was no significant difference between the pretest mean and the posttest mean within either the control group or the treatment group as measured by the RSES. There was no significant difference between the means of the

control group and the treatment group for the BST test. There was no significant difference between the means of the control group and the treatment group for the RSES. Therefore, the two null hypotheses were accepted. A correlation between the achievement gains in mathematics and the gain in self-concepts was not shown at the .05 level of significance.

THE EFFECTS OF THE USE OF SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS AND THE READING IS FUNDAMENTAL (RIF) PROGRAM ON ATTITUDE TOWARD READING, ATTITUDE TOWARD SELF, AND READING ACHIEVEMENT OF FIFTH-GRADE STUDENTS

Edna W. Herndon (EdS, Middle Grades Education, June, 1985)

The study was conducted to see if the use of supplementary materials and RIF with the basal reading series affected the students' attitude toward reading, attitude toward self, and reading achievement of fifth-grade students at Sand Hill School, Carrollton, Georgia. Four hypotheses were proposed. Data regarding sex, reading achievement, and attitudes for 52 students were analyzed using the **t** test for dependent means to measure gain.

No significant differences in achievement gain of boys and girls or of better readers and poorer readers were found. There was also no significant gain in attitude toward self during the research period. There was, however, a significant gain in the students' attitude toward reading.

LOSING FAITH: THE EXPERIENCE OF LONELINESS

Donald Ray Ingram (MA, Psychology, March, 1986)

Loneliness begins when a significant other rejects a feeling that the lonely individual has. The lonely individual's feelings are treated as though they don't matter; they are not important. When John went to a dance place, the Fifty-fourth Aeorospot, he felt lonely. He didn't matter to anyone there. He said, "I don't feel special." If John had not expected someone to care for his feelings in this place, he would not have been lonely, but he expected to be someone special to someone there; and he was lonely. In other experiences, a similar initial feeling of rejection develops. Robbin feels left out, and Mary and Kathy feel rejected. In each of these cases there is a situation in which the individual's feelings are treated poorly but this alone does not make him/her lonely. It is the secret expectation that the significant other will provide an unfulfilled need, but the significant other cannot or will not provide it. The lonely individual is shy about asserting his/her need because it is experienced as shameful. The participant emerges from loneliness to the degree that he/she takes responsibility for the need, rather than manipulating someone else into taking care of it. The method is descriptive and phenomenological.

A READING ACHIEVEMENT COMPARISON OF CHAPTER I STUDENTS USING A CHILDREN'S LITERATURE APPROACH AND STUDENTS USING A BASIC SKILLS APPROACH

Mary J. Jarrell (EdS, Reading, June, 1985)

This study was done to determine if sixth-grade students in a Chapter I reading class who listened to children's literature read aloud every day and then pariticpated in Sustained Silent Reading would show as much gain in reading comprehension as would those sixth graders who were not read to but who used a structured basic skills approach to reading. Ten sixth-grade Chapter I students participated in this study, five in the experimental group and five in the control group. The study lasted for 12 weeks from September to December. The experimental group listened to a total of five books during that time, with each day's reading being prefaced by a short discussion of the previous day's reading. New vocabulary was introduced at the beginning of a book and as encountered in the reading. Various comprehension questions were discussed as the reading progressed. Some creative writing was done upon completion of a book. In addition to the daily 30 minute read-aloud sessions, students in the experimental group participated for 15 minutes in Sustained Silent Reading to give them time to practice reading independently. Class sessions totaled 45 minutes. Students in the control group also met for 45 minutes daily. They worked in a very structured format, after having skills such as sequencing, main idea, and drawing conclusions introduced in a group, completing workbook pages, worksheets, and task cards. Students were given the Metropolitan Reading Test, Form J, as a pre-test in September, and Metropolitan Form K, in December. A reading comprehension grade equivalency score was obtained on both the pre- and post-tests. The null hypothesis for the study stated that there would be no significant difference in reading comprehension scores as measured by the Metropolitan Reading Test of those sixth-graders using the Children's Literature Approach and those students using the Basic Skills Approach. The hypothesis was tested using a t-test at the .05 level of significance and was rejected with a t-test value of -2.81 with 8 degrees of freedom. The Basic Skills Group, the control group, made significantly more reading comprehension gain, with a mean gain score of .86. The mean score of the experimental group was .00.

FRIENDSHIP BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN: A DESCRIPTIVE APPROACH

Melinda Jean Lafferty (MA, Psychology, August, 1985)

Past research on male/female friendships has tended to focus on the quantifiable aspects of these relationships with little attention being given to the experience as it is lived by the people involved. The present study was

conducted as an effort to explicate the lived meaning of freindship between men and women in a way that a new and truer perspective of the phenomenon could be gained. There was no hypothesis to be tested, no pre-conceived definitions or categories used.

The subjects were three men and three women who volunteered to participate. They were initially asked to write a description of a meaningful relationship with a member of the other gender and later, were interviewed in order to elaborate on and clarify their original description.

Data analysis proceeded along the guidelines of the phenomenological method as suggested by Wertz (1983). Within each individual transcribed interview certain themes were realized. Each transcript was compared, one to the other, so as to understand how the individual cases were representative of an integrated whole.

While there were idiosyncratic features in the individual descriptions, it was found that some generalizations could be made. The lived meaning of trust, respect, the sharing of thoughts, feelings and activities, and the advantage of broadened life perspective are described.

A COMPARISON OF SEXIST TRENDS IN CHILDREN'S LITERATURE IN THE NEWBERY AWARD WINNERS FROM 1965-1969 amd 1980-1984

Sharon W. Loner (EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1985)

The purpose of this study was to find if there was a change in sexist content in the Newbery Award winners. The study used exclusively the award winners from 1965-1969 and 1980-1984.

All ten books used in this study were read by the researcher. A talley was kept on each book to gather the following data: (a) the number of female characters, (b) the number of male characters assuming passive roles, (c) the number of males portrayed in illustrations, (d) the number of male main characters, and (e) the overall number of females in the books. To determine statistical difference, chi-square analysis was used.

Five research hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance. There was a mixture of outcomes among the hypotheses. The number of female characters in the books did increase significantly from 1965-1969 to 1980-1984. This was the only research hypotheses not rejected.

The number of male characters assuming passive roles did not increase significantly from 1965-1969 to 1980-1984. The number of males in illustrations did not decrease significantly from 1965-1969 to 1980-1984. There was also no significant change in the number of male main characters between the two groups of years. Finally, there did not prove to be significant change in the overall number of females in the Newbery Award winners from 1965-1969 to 1980-1984.

From this study, it was concluded that, except for the significant change in the number of female characters, there was actually little change in sexist trends in the Newbery Award winners from the 1960's to the 1980's.

The information studied leads to a recommendation that authors, publishers, and educators must do more to alleviate sex-biased content in children's literature. While some of the results showed a movement toward equalization in the portrayal of males and females, there was still room for improvement.

SEX DIFFERENCES IN MATHEMATICAL PERFORMANCE OF SEVENTH- AND EIGHTH-GRADE STUDENTS

Blanche E. McElfresh (EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1985)

This study was designed to determine if there is a significant difference of mathematical performance between males and females. A comparison was made on grades given at the end of each grading period and achievement demonstrated on *The California Achievement Test* and *The Georgia Criterion Referenced Test.*

Subjects used in this study were seventh- and eighth-grade students from the Griffin-Spalding County School System in Griffin, Georgia. The total population from which the sample was selected included 1,521 students. Special Education students were excluded from the study.

Each seventh-grade student was given *The California Achievement Test* and each eighth-grade student was given *The Georgia Criterion Referenced Test* during the month of March. Grades for the three grading periods were collected and assigned quality points. The test scores and quality points were statistically analyzed by the analysis of variance test for the purposes of this study.

The first, second, third, and fourth null hypotheses, which dealt with grades, computational skills, application skills, and overall achievement in mathematics of seventh-grade students, were rejected. The fifth and sixth null hypotheses, which dealt with grades and overall achievement in mathematics of eighth-grade students, were not rejected.

The results of the data of this study indicated that girls are superior in mathematical performance in the seventh- and eighth-grade in computation, application, overall achievement, and grades in mathematics. The seventh-grade girls were significantly higher than boys in mathematical performance in this study, however, in the eighth-grade the girls were superior to boys but not at a significant level.

THE EFFECTS OF TEMPERATURE ON THE MATING BEHAVIOR AND REPRODUCTION OF SELECTED GENOTYPES OF D. MELANNOGASTER

Boniface Ude-Onyebuchi Okeke (MS, Biology, August, 1985)

This study was designed to provide information relative to changes in the mating behavior and the resultant reproduction, that may be triggered, by subjecting selected stocks of **D. melanogaster** to different constant temperature levels.

Six mutant genotypes were selected on the basis of their known effect on mating behavior. A wild type strain (Oregon R) was used as a control and also the wild type males were mated with females of each of the mutant genotypes.

Flies were removed from the stock vials after eclosion and separated according to sex. They were then placed in vials containing six males or six females of the same genotype. A male and female pair of each genotype was left at room temperature while the others were placed in controlled temperature chambers set at 20 C, 22 C, 24 C, 26 C, 28 C, and 30 C, for twenty-four hours. At the end of this period five Oregon R males were placed in the vials with the five mutant females and the vials placed back in their respective chambers. The sixth female mutant fly and a male Oregon R fly were placed on a grid in a petri dish and mating behavior was observed for a period of thirty minutes. After thirty hours the males and females were shaken from the mating vials and discarded. After nine days the offspring were removed from the vials, separated by sex and counted. The results indicate that different temperatures have an effect on mating overtures, especially on the time elapsing between the introduction of the male into the courting chamber and the male beginning his courtship. Temperature has a decided effect on the number of offspring produced. There was a gradual increase in the number of offspring from 20 C to 26 C and a decrease from this peak to 30 C. More offspring were born at 20 C than at 30 C. Statistical analysis of the experimental data by using the SASS Program for analysis of variance and F test, with further verification of the validity of the F test using Duncan's multiple range test, provided the basis for rejecting the null hypotheses, namely that temperature and genotype do not effect mating behavior and reproduction in **D. melanogaster.** Duncan's test showed some interesting relationships between and among the flies as regards mating behavior and reproduction. Pearson's correlation coefficient gave a high positive correlation for the ratio of male to female offspring produced for both temperature and mating behavior.

A COMPARISON STUDY OF A CAI TUTORIAL PROGRAM AND A CAI DISCOVERY PROGRAM TO TEACH ADDITION AND SUBTRACTION OF DIRECTED NUMBERS TO LOW ABILITY SECONDARY MATHEMATICS STUDENTS

Gary E. Smith (EdS, Secondary Education, December, 1985)

The purpose of this study was to determine for a group of low ability mathematics students whether there was a difference in achievement of students being taught addition and subtraction of directed numbers by a computer-assisted instruction (CAI) tutorial program as compated to a CAI discovery program.

It was hypothesized that students taught by the CAI tutorial program would achieve at the same level as would students taught by the CAI discovery program. It was also hypothesized that the number of students exhibiting the ability to verbalize the rules for addition and subtraction of directed numbers would not be significantly different for the two groups.

The subjects for this study were 64 tenth and eleventh grade students enrolled in three general math classes at McEachern High School, Powder Springs, Georgia. Each class was randomly assigned to one of three treatment groups. The only difference in the treatment of the three groups was that one group was taught by a CAI tutorial program, the second group was taught by a CAI discovery program while a third group (control group) received regular classroom instruction without any computer instruction.

An analysis of vaiance on the raw scores of the general math test from the Scott Foresman Comprehension Assessment Program was used to determine whether the three groups were matched according to their general mathematics abilities. Two forms of an addition-subtraction test of directed numbers, consisting of 20 addition and 20 subtraction problems, were used for this study. A pretest and a posttest were given and a subtraction and addition raw score for both tests was obtained. A t-test for each group was conducted for the pretest and posttest means to determine if any significant learning occured as a result of the training sessions.

To test the first hypothesis, the difference in the pretest and the posttest scores for both addition and subtraction was obtained and an analysis of variance for the three groups was used to test for any significant difference in achievement gains. The level of significance was set at the .05 level of condidence. To test the second hypothesis, each subject was asked to write down the rules for adding and subtracting directed numbers. These two rules were solicited both prior to the training sessions and after the training sessions. To test for any significant difference in the number of subjects able to verbalize these rules before and after the treatment a Chi Square was used.

There was no significant difference between the computer-assisted instruction groups with respect to achievement on both addition and subtraction of directed numbers. The only significant difference was between the computer-assisted tutorial group and the control group for achievement gains in subtraction. No significant difference was found between the subjects' abilities to verbalize rules before or after the training sessions. A discussion of the results was made and recommendations as to the use of computer-assisted instruction in the classroom were made.

EFFECTS OF MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT ON ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT OF FOURTH-GRADE STUDENTS

Donna June Smith Stanford (EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1985)

The purpose of this study was to determine what effect, if any, maternal employment has on the academic achievement of fourth-grade students at Bowdon Elementary School in Bowdon, Georgia. Seven hypotheses were stated. Data regarding race, sex, maternal employment status, professional maternal employment and non-professional maternal employment status, low socio-economic level and above low socio-economic level, and achievement scores in reading and mathematics as indicated on the California Achievement Test were collected. Using the Analysis of Variance, these data for 130 students were analyzed.

There was no significant difference between the academic achievement scores of students whose mothers were employed and the students whose mothers were not employed. Also, no significant differences in academic achievement scores were found when comparing male students, black students, and white students regarding their mothers' employment status. However, there was a significant difference between the female students' mathematics achievement scores in regard to maternal employment. Furthermore, there were significant differences in achievement scores of students with professionally employed mothers and non-professionally employed mothers. Also, there were significant difference in achievement scores of students from a low socio-economic status and students from above a low socio-economic status.

CORRELATING THE TEACHING OF GEORGIA AND UNITED STATES HISTORY—A SURVEY

Zan Stallings Steadham (EdS, Secondary Education, August, 1985)

The problem of this study was to determine the best method for teaching Georgia history—should the course be taught as a discrete subject or correlated with United States history? Furthermore, the problem was to

see what method of teaching Georgia history was being used throught Georgia in the various local school systems.

The review of related literature clearly pointed to the need to correlate the teaching of United States and state histories to make national history more initmate and state history more realistic in relation to the state history's true place in the nation and region. This correlated course should be taught on the secondary level so that time in the lower grades could be used for the basics. However, it should not be a requirement for graduation due to the mobility of our population. This teaching method was upheld by the Georgia's basic curriculum which stated that Georgia history and studies should be taught in the eighth grade and should teach the interdependence of United States and Georgia political systems, history, and culture.

The results of the survey of the school systems of Georgia showed that the eighth grade was the grade of choice for teaching Georgia studies (79%). This put Georgia studies in the secondary level without making it a graduation requirement. Sixty-three percent of the systems surveyed did not include United States history for at least one half of their class leading to the conclusion that the two studies were not being correlated. Seventy-six percent of the surveyed systems did state that United States history should be included in the Georgia studies classes because it made Georgia studies easier for students to learn.

This study recommends that Georgia studies should be correlated with United States history in order to make Georgia studies more relevant, easier to understand, and realistically placed in its true perspective. Placement of this class in the eighth grade answered the need of including this important subject on the secondary level without making it a graduation requirement. Teaching United States history at an earlier grade, as in the seventh for example, does make it possible to correlate the two subjects sufficiently, United States history and Georgia studies should be correlated because, as shown by the literature research, the author's experience, and the school systems surveyed, students acquire a better understanding of both areas of study.

A STUDY OF THE RECREATIONAL READING HABITS OF SIXTH-GRADE STUDENTS AT BOWDON ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Cathy W. Steed (EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1985)

This study proposed to evaluate the recreational reading habits of the sixth-grade students at Bowdon Elementary School. Reading habits were analyzed based on sex and by fiction or non-fiction book choices reported by the students.

The subjects of the study were students in the sixth grade at Bowdon Elementary School, Carroll County, Georgia for the 1984-1985 school year. There were 88 participants in the study.

Students completed a questionnaire and a reading interest inventory. Information asked for included how many books read, why they read a book (when they read for pleasure), and what kinds of books (fiction or non-fiction) they chose when they read for pleasure.

Data were compiled and sent to the West Georgia College Computer Center to be analyzed. The .05 level of significance was the criterion selected to reject the null hypotheses.

Hypothesis one stated there would be no significant difference in the number of fiction books chosen by boys and chosen by girls. The t ratio comparing the two means was -.55, d.f. (86), p=59. Hypothesis one was not rejected as the data showed there was no significant difference in the number of fiction books chosen by boys and chosen by girls.

Hypothesis two stated there would be no significant difference in the number of non-fiction books chosen by boys and chosen by girls. The t ratio comparing the two means was .35, d.f. (86), p=.72. Hypothesis two was not rejected as there was no significant difference in the number of non-fiction books chosen by boys and chosen by girls.

The third hypothesis stated there would be no significant relationship between sex and the categories of frequency of books reported read. Hypothesis three was not rejected as the chi square value for the comparison was $x^2=10.55$, d.f. (5) with .06 significance which shows no significant relationship.

This study does not support previous research on the subject (Tooze, 1957; Pilgrim & McAllister, 1968; Carlsen, 1980; Feeley, 1982). Research has found that boys tend to choose non-fiction while girls choose fiction. Girls generally read more than boys. In this study, boys and girls were found to be more alike than different in their reading habits and preferences.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE ACHIEVEMENT OF ELEVENTH-GRADE GEOMETRY IN A COURSE OF STUDY WITH AND WITHOUT A LOGIC UNIT

Talmadge Ray Tucker, Jr. (EdS, Secondary Education, August, 1985)

The purpose of this study was to determine whether teaching a unit of logic would cause a difference in the achievement levels of geometry students on a standardized geometry test.

It was hypothesized that there would be no difference in the level of achievement in geometry in two classes of geometry students, if one class

was taught a unit of logic and the other class was not taught a unit of logic.

The subjects were in two intact geometry classes at Calhoun High School in Calhoun, Georgia. These clases included 28 eleventh-grade students. The treatment was that one class was taught a unit of logic and the other class was not.

The Comprehensive Assessment Program, High School Subject Tests, Geometry was used in the study as both the pretest and the posttest and served as the dependent variable. The posttest data were analyzed using the two way analysis of covariance to test the null hypothesis at the .05 level of significance.

It was concluded that geometry students would achieve at the same level whether they had the logic unit or not.

THE EFFECTS OF ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION INSTRUCTION ON THE ATTITUDES OF FOURTH-GRADE STUDENTS TOWARD THE ENVIRONMENT

Karen K. Turner (EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1985)

The purpose of this study was to determine if a more positive attitude exists in students who have received 10 hours of planned environmental instruction than in students who have not received instruction in environmental topics. The relationship of attitude toward environmental education in relation to sex and achievement in science was also evaluated.

The population of the study consisted of 50 fourth-grade students in two self-contained classrooms at Brookwood Elementary School in Dalton, Georgia during the 1984-1985 school year. The control group consisted of 25 students, and the experimental group contained 25 students.

The test used to collect data for the study was an environmental education survey designed for fourth-grade students by the investigator. The statistic used to test the null hypotheses was the analysis of variance. The level at which the null hypotheses would be rejected was set at .05.

The independent variables were the type of group (control or experimental), achievement in science, and the sex of the subjects. There was a significant difference between the attitude test scores in relation to the groups; therefore, hypothesis one was rejected in favor of a more positive attitude toward the environment of the students in the experimental group. There was no significant difference between the scores on the test in relation to achievement in science and the sex of the subjects.

THE SELF-CONCEPT ON THE GIFTED STUDENT IN GRADES SEVEN AND EIGHT AT RINGGOLD JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Ralph Wallin, Jr. (EdS, Middle Grades Education, March, 1986)

This study was designed to investigate the significant effects of participation in an enrichment program on self-concept of gifted students in grades seven and eight at Ringgold Junior High School.

The subjects used in this study were 44 students in grades seven and eight. A group of 22 high achieving students, not in an enrichment class, composed the control group. The experimental group was composed of 22 students enrolled in an enrichment program. The subjects of both groups were similar in age, sex, and socio-economic status, grade in school, and scored 135 or above on the Slossen Intelligence Test.

The self-concept test used for this study was the **Piers-Harris Self-concept Scale**. The test was administered in January, 1986.

The t-test was uded to analyze the data and ther null hypotheses were not rejected at the .05 level of significance.

Results from the analysis showed that there was no significant difference in self-concept scores between the students in the enrichment class and the high achieving students not in the enrichment class. There was no significant difference in self-concept scores with regard to sex within the experimental group. The results showed there was no significant difference between the self-concept scores of those students just beginning this school year and those students who participated in the enrichment program the year before. These statistics imply that further research should be conducted with both the experimental and control groups to determine if the subjects' self-concept scores were valid.

A COMPARISON OF THE ACHIEVEMENT OF STUDENTS TAUGHT WITH THE SUCCESS IN READING AND WRITING PROGRAM AND STUDENTS TAUGHT WITH THE BASAL READING PROGRAM

Esther Walston (EdS, Early Childhood Education, August, 1985)

The purpose of this study was to compare the achievement of students taught with the Houghton-Mifflin Reading Program, a traditional basal, and the students taught with the Success in Reading and Writing Program, an alternative to the basal.

The subjects of this study were the 43 third-grade students at Fourth Ward Elementary School in Griffin, Georgia. The control and experimental group were considered equal in ability.

The control group was taught as prescribed by the Houghton-Mifflin Reading Program. Students were grouped for daily reading lessons according to the reading level completed in the second grade. Other language arts skills were taught as separate lessons from locally adopted texts. The experimental group was taught the full scope of language arts with the Success in Reading and Writing Program. Students were taught as a whole class with the students responding according to their ability. The teacher worked with individuals and small groups as the need arose.

In the fall and again in the Spring, the California Achievement Test, the Estes Attitude Test and a writing assignment were administered to both classes. One week out of each month, a tally was taken of the number of books checked out of the school library by students from both classes.

An analysis of covariance was used to test the null hypotheses at the .05 level of significance. No significant difference was found in the reading achievement, attitude of reading or language expression of the students in both the control and experimental groups. There was, however, a significant difference between the groups in the number of books checked out of the school library. It was found that students in the experimental group checked out a significantly greater amount of books than students in the control group.

It is recommended that a similar study be conducted comparing students taught with the Success in Reading and Writing Program in grades K-6 and students taught with a basal in grades K-6 to see if the results would be similar.

B.E. POWELL

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The purpose of this publication is to provide encouragement for faculty research and to make available results of such activity. The *Review*, published annually, accepts original scholarly work and creative writing. West Georgia College assumes no responsibility for contributor's views. The style guide is *MLA Handbook, Second Edition.* Although the *Review* is primarily a medium for the faculty of West Georgia College, other sources are invited.

An annual Bibliography includes doctoral dissertations, major recitals and major exhibits. Theses and articles in progress or accepted are not listed. A faculty member's initial listing is comprehensive and appears in the issue of the year of his employment. The abstracts of all master's theses and educational specialists projects written at West Georgia College are included as they are awarded.

A POET'S GIFT TO RADIO: ARCHIBALD MACLEISH'S *THE FALL OF THE CITY*

*by Glenn D. Novak**

American radio drama of the 1930's was not, in general, experimental or innovative. Governed by economic laws similar to those affecting television in the '80's, the typical radio drama of fifty years ago usually consisted of comedy series, mystery programs, adventures and romances, or radio adaptations of successful stage plays or films. Such fare was harmless, entertaining and, above all, immensely popular. Commercial advertisers were eager to sponsor such programs, and audiences were built up over time who came to expect familiar stories and only slightly varying themes. Radical experimentation with either the medium or the message was not one of the major characteristics of the sponsored radio program of the '30's.

It was, rather, the Columbia Workshop which provided the opportunities for writers and directors to diverge from the more established formats of the time. Formed in 1936 by W. B. Lewis, head of the program division at CBS at the time, the Workshop encouraged the writing and production of creative, non-traditional radio drama (Coulter vi). Irving Reis became the director of the CBS sustaining enterprise. His own innovative strips—among them, *The Half Pint Flask, St. Louis Blues,* and *Meridian 7-1212*—became models of thematic audacity and technical experimentation. Under his leadership, the Columbia Workshop flourished and grew in respect among both general public and prominent authors. Only a little more than a year after its inception, one writer called the Columbia Workshop "the most important laboratory in America for artistic and technical research in radio drama" (Hood 21). Douglas Coulter, Assistant Director of Broadcasts for CBS during the late '30's, explained the wide variety of programs broadcast by the Workshop:

> Except for about a dozen commissioned scripts, the Workshop has chosen from unsolicited scripts, producing those which seem worthwhile. There are no restrictions as to form, content, treatment, or subject matter; anything goes, as long as it is in good taste and makes a good story. (xv)

Among the names of some of America's finest writers was the contributor of one of the Workshop's most successful plays. His name was Archibald MacLeish, and his play was *The Fall of the City*. This paper discusses the importance of the play to the development of radio drama, and analyzes briefly some of its internal characteristics which might account for its success and its influence.

**Assistant Professor of Mass Communication, West Georgia College*

The Poet's Perfect Audience

Archibald MacLeish is best known, of course, not as a radio dramatist but as a poet. A well-educated man (Yale, Harvard) who had served as a captain in the U. S. Army during World War I, MacLeish soon gave up a successful law practice to turn his attention completely to the field of poetry, long his avocation and first love. After a period of six years spent in Europe (1923-28), MacLeish returned to the United States, an acknowledged poet whose skill was widely admired (Smith 6). During the years to follow, he would create some of the world's most beautiful and memorable poetry: *New Found Land, Streets in the Moon, Frescoes for Mr. Rockefeller's City, Conquistador.*

The Fall of the City marked MacLeish's first attempt at writing a radio drama. *Panic*, a verse play for the stage, written in 1935, had proved a testing ground for MacLeish's ability to convey a message written in poetry but carried to an audience via dramatic presentation as opposed to the written work. Regarding the attraction of the former method, MacLeish asked rhetorically, "What poet ever lived who was really satisfied with writing the thin little books to lie on the front parlor tables?" (MacLeish ix).

MacLeish took about six months to write *The Fall of the City*, beginning in the summer of 1936. His reasons for writing the play were twofold: (1) He wanted to express to the public a theme which he felt was particularly relevant to the times, a theme that concerned itself with tyranny, resistance, and the price of liberty; (2) He wished to set an example for other writers, poets and non-poets, in his use of verse and medium. He hoped that the production of *The Fall of the City* would serve as an incentive to others who might be reluctant to attempt the writing of a verse play for radio.

In the foreword to his play, MacLeish explained at some length his reasons for believing that radio was the ideal medium for the poet. Of primary importance was the fact that there existed on radio no competition to the spoken word. Unlike the theatre audience, the radio audience has no stimulation of the other senses which could in any way diminish the power of the poetry. In an insightful and colorful example from the realm of Wagnerian opera, MacLeish made his point:

> Over the radio verse has no visual presence to compete with. Only the ear is engaged and the ear is already half poet. It believes at once: creates and believes. It is the eye which is the realist. It is the eye which must fit everything together, must see everything before and behind. It is the eye and not the ear which refuses to believe in the lovely girlhood of a middle-aged soprano who sings Isolde, or the delicate, water-troubling slenderness of the three fat Rhine maidens ridiculously paddling at the ends of three steel ropes. With the eye closed or staring at nothing verse has every power

> over the ear. The ear accepts, accepts and believes, accepts and creates. The ear is the poet's perfect audience, his only true audience. And it is radio and only radio which can give him public access to this perfect friend. (x)

Another reason for the poet to write verse expressly for radio rested in the fact that the "radio announcer" character, a figure quite normal and acceptable to radio audiences, provided the ideal vehicle to convey information, exposition, or opinion regarding the action of the play. He functioned much like the Greek chorus, but without the stylization or rigidity of the latter, allowing natural transitions without obscuring meaning or locale. On this second point at least one radio writer chose to differ with MacLeish, calling the narrator a "characteristic wind-bag," and asking, with a device like this, "Why bother to create a dramatic scene to carry your story? . . . It is frightfully poor writing at best" (Alexander).

Other reasons which MacLeish advanced concerning the radio poet consisted of the following: the recent suspension of the WPA experimental theatre had left a void in the production of innovative drama; also, because radio production costs were lower, more risks could be taken in the trial of new ideas and techniques, quite unlike the vested commercial interests governing Broadway; finally, radio provided a much larger audience for the poet, even though this audience was neither immediate nor capable of generating instant feedback. This "infinitely greater" audience was a key factor in MacLeish's enthusiasm for the medium, a consideration which "alone should deeply move the American poet whose present tragedy is his isolation from any audience vigorous enough to demand his strongest work" (MacLeish xiii).

There were, of course, certain reservations, and MacLeish pointed these out as well. A radio play should not exceed thirty minutes; beyond that, it was very difficult to hold the listener. Obscurity was to be avoided. "To do the trick bold and legible themes must be used," MacLeish stated. "Poetry to be understood must be simple and clear, and that is the keynote of success in writing for the air" (Dunlap "Radio Challenges").

The Whole Square is Faces

MacLeish practiced what he had been preaching. While *The Fall of the City* contains obvious metaphorical devices, events which are not entirely unambiguous, and speeches best described as cryptic at times, the *poetry* is always simple and clear, the theme always bold and legible. The message is clear yet inviting of our own special interpretations. This poetry, like all good poetry, resists a capsule summary in a mundane prose more suitable to a newspaper story. If we are not always certain what exactly is meant by a phrase or a speech, it is because there is no *exact* meaning that we should attach to it. Part of the beauty of the poetry and the power of the drama lies in the fact that we, the listeners (or the readers), are free to interpret the

symbols as we see fit. MacLeish has given us the story; we are to draw the conclusions.

The story itself may be summarized without difficulty; the effect of hearing the actual broadcast can only be imagined. The play opens on a large public square in an unnamed city. A large crowd has assembled, and we, the audience, are to receive reports on what is happening through the radio announcer, situated off to one side of the action, describing to us what he sees:

Voice of the Announcer:
We are here on the central plaza.
We are well off to the eastward edge.
There is a kind of terrace over the crowd here.
It is precisely four minutes to twelve.
The crowd is enormous: there might be ten thousand:
There might be more: the whole square is faces. (MacLeish 4)

It is through the announcer and his "on-site" microphone that the entire proceedings of the play are made known to us. We learn that the excitement of the large crowd is due to the fact that at noon on the past three days a dead woman has risen from her grave and appeared to the people. Today they expect her to reappear and perhaps to speak. They are not disappointed:

Voice of the Dead Woman:
Death is young in me to fear!
My dress is kept still in the press in my bedchamber:
No one has broken the dish of the dead woman.
Nevertheless I must speak painfully:
I am to stand here in the sun and speak:
The city of masterless men
Will take a master.
There will be shouting then:
Blood after! (7)

This announcement results in panic. Soon a messenger arrives with word that a conqueror has landed on the nearby coast, advancing toward the city. The resulting frenzy is temporarily subdued by the subtle arguments of the pacifist orator, urging the people to follow a nonviolent course to foil the invader:

Voice of the Orator:
Force is a greater enemy that this conqueror—
A treacherous weapon.
Nevertheless my friends there *is* a weapon!
Weakness conquers!
Against chainlessness who breaks?

Against wall-lessness who vaults?
Against forcelessness who forces? (15)

Soon thereafter a second messenger arrives with a progress report on the conqueror who, we learn, requires no resistance; he brings with him his own enemy. Panic again ensues. The priests of the city then attempt to persuade the people to turn to their gods, and an uncontrolled religious ritual begins; a young girl is almost sacrificed in the excited confusion. A General interrupts the proceedings with a strong appeal to the people to resist the invader:

Voice of the General:
You! Are you free? Will you fight?
There are still inches for fighting!
There is still a niche in the streets!
You can stand on the stairs and meet him!
You can hold in the dark of a hall!
You can die!
—or your children will crawl for it! (28)

The General's advice is not heeded, and the people run wildly throughout the square, destroying their weapons and shouting:

Voices of Citizens:
Masterless men must take a master!
Order must master us!
Freedom's for fools: Force is the certainty!
Freedom has eaten our strength and corrupted our virtues!
Men must be ruled!
Fools must be mastered!
Rigor and fast will restore us our dignity!
Chains will be liberty! (30)

The conqueror finally appears, clothed entirely in armor. The people cower at his feet, trembling, wretched, as he lifts the visor on his helmet. Only the announcer sees the terrible truth of the situation:

Voice of the Announcer:
There's no one at all! . . . No one! . . . The helmet is hollow!
They don't see! They lie on the paving. They lie in the burnt spears:
The ashes of arrows. They lie there . . .
They don't see or they won't see. They are silent. . . . (32)

It is the announcer, in the tradition of the Greek chorus, who states the theme of the drama at this point:

The people invent their oppressors: they wish to believe in them.
They wish to be free of their freedom: released from their liberty:—
The long labor of liberty ended!
They lie there! (32)

When the crowd begins shouting with happiness over their "new freedom," the announcer's final words ring out the close of the play: "The city has fallen" (33).

Signs and Symbols

In his probing analysis of *The Fall of the City*, L. C. Hood discusses the central theme and the author's use of the parable to convey a message:

> What the author has to say in this parable of ancient times in which the present is mirrored by the past is to provide an interpretation of what is happening to a world which feels itself being doomed by the spread of dictatorships. He has said what he has to say in poetry that apparently obscures his theme but really reduces the complexity of the present age to symbols which when examined are more simple and more intense that the real thing. (22)

The characters are all highly symbolic. The Conqueror represents antidemocratic influences *apparently* coming from without (and typified by the gradual Nazification of Western Europe at the time). The Dead Woman is a symbol of those who prophesy that democracy is doomed. The Liberal Orator represents all those who claim that not force but more tolerance will lead humanity to victory over its oppressors. It is the Crowd which is the tragic hero and central focus of the play.

High School Students and Army Trucks

The Fall of the City aired at 7:00 p.m., EST, on Sunday, April 11, 1937, on the CBS radio network, WABC, New York. This time slot on that particular evening was occupied by Jack Benny (WEAF), Forum Hour (WOR), Symphony Concert (WNYC), and News (WMCA). The play was preceded on WABC by the Rubinoff Orchestra at 6:30 and followed at 7:30 by Phil Baker, comedian (Radio Schedule).

The part of the announcer was played by Orson Welles, personally recruited earlier for the part by director Irving Reis. The morning of the broadcast, Burgess Meredith had walked into the CBS studios and had asked for a part in the play: he was given the role of the Pacifist Orator ("Fall"). House Jameson played the studio director who announced the story and set the locale for the radio announcer to take over. The dead woman was played by Adelaide Klein, the Priest by Edgar Stehli, and the General by William Pringle.

The "crowd" consisted of students from New York University and several New Jersey high schools, along with boys' club members. They numbered about two hundred but were made to sound like ten thousand by the process of recording their sounds earlier in the day and then playing them back later through large loudspeakers during the actual performance, at which time these same extras repeated their vocalizations.

The recordings formed a second "layer" of sound behind the live noises being generated during the broadcast (Dunlap "The Fall of the City").

These sound effects were made all the more realistic by the natural ambience of the radio stage. The broadcast took place from the drill hall of the Seventh Regiment Armory at Park Avenue and 66th Street in New York City. The size of the place was ideal for the large group of extras, and echos were easily generated. One unforeseen event almost spoiled the play's opening, however. At five minutes to seven, the huge Armory door opened and two five-ton Army trucks pulled into the building, creating noise, confusion, and a break in concentration. The incident was quickly controlled, however, and the broadcast went smoothly ("Fall").

A Prophecy and a Trend

The significance of *The Fall of the City* should not be underestimated. The drama represents an important contribution on at least three counts. First, a sense of extreme realism in sound effects was achieved and maintained by the use of the Armory and a large cast as opposed to a normal studio and recorded crowd noises. The technical aspects of the antiphonal chorus sounds, crowd responses, and individual speeches required the careful placement and mixing of four microphones in a vast building with difficult acoustics.

Second, the drama deals with a provocative theme. The story was remarkably relevant to the times, when Europe was undergoing the turbulence and distress of the Anschluss, the bringing together of all the Germanic and Slavic nationalities. Within only a few months of this broadcast, Vienna would fall to Hitler; soon thereafter, Prague would succumb to the Third Reich, then Memel, then Tirana. As Coulter put it, "A repetition of *The Fall of the City* on any of these occasions would have given the program almost the sharp edge of a news dramatization" (350). The play was a grim testimony to the fact that cities and nations are composed of large masses willing to follow a leader and eager to accept his decisions and his visions of the future. MacLeish's play was an unhappy prophecy.

Finally, and by no means least in importance, is the fact that *The Fall of the City* represents the first attempt by an American poet to create a verse play expressly for American radio. The play was not an adaptation from a stage play, novel, film, or verse anthology; it was written solely for radio. Geoffrey Bridson's verse drama, *The March of the '45*, had been broadcast in England in 1936, and the BBC had given air time to the experimental radio dramas of T. S. Eliot and James Hilton, but until April of 1937, American audiences had had no opportunity to hear any productions of this type ("Poetic Drama"). The success of MacLeish's drama was a major force in the creation of subsequent verse drama for radio, most notably in the poetic dramas written during the war years by Norman Corwin.

MacLeish had hoped to establish a new direction and create interest in this new form. To a limited extent, he succeeded.

Poetry as Public Speech

The Fall of the City met with public acceptance and critical acclaim. Ralph Thompson, writing in *The New York Times*, realized the significance of the event: "This broadcast proved, perhaps for the first time, that the radio has an enormous artistic potential and that music is not the only means by which its commercial banalities may be tempered." Gilbert Seldes wrote that the work was a "highly dramatic and imaginative play in favor or human freedom. The Columbia Broadcasting System is to be congratulated on having made the production. . . Perhaps the fact that an experiment of this sort was made by one of the networks is as important as Mr. MacLeish's attempt to use radio" (61). Orrin Dunlap was equally excited by the broadcast, and expressed his unreserved optimism about the future of verse radio drama: "Mr. MacLeish has pointed the way, and the talented poets, who have been shy of the microphone or the microphone shy of them, as it was for a long time of comedians, now have the gateway open to the studio in which verse plays may be electrified and sprayed through every city and hamlet" ("The Fall of the City").

Negative criticisms were, in general, minor in nature and few in number. One writer felt that MacLeish's Conqueror was too brittle an abstraction to carry any real power (Larkin 893). Seldes thought the speeches were too long and that the action should have moved away occasionally from the square to the advancing Conqueror (62). Dunlap stated that some of the actors seemed to rush through their lines much too quickly, placing a burden on the listeners ("The Fall of the City"). One reviewer seemed to have missed the point completely, suggesting that the locale be not an ancient Mayan city but rather a modern walled European city. The listener's imagination had to work so hard "that the thrill of the climax was lessened" (Wyatt).

The Fall of the City was considered one of the high points of the Columbia Workshop, and is included in Douglas Coulter's anthology of the Workshop's best plays (351-78). The drama was performed again on CBS on January 9, 1938, several months before MacLeish's second verse play for radio, *Air Raid*, was broadcast. Additionally, *The Fall of the City* received numerous staged productions on college campuses across the country, including a special dance-drama adaptation at Smith College in June, 1938 ("Students at Smith"). Clearly, the play had come at the right time and had had an impact upon the American public and upon the earlier notions of what did or did not constitute good radio drama. Perhaps Dayton Kohler, writing in *The South Atlantic Quarterly* in October, 1939, best summarized the aesthetic contribution of MacLeish to a pre-World War II America certain of its own goals but unsure of its global mission:

Archibald MacLeish has brought poetry back to the language of public speech, poetry that is once more a record of man's common fate. Written in an age of crisis, his work is an act of participation in the living world . . . he is a spokesman of the modern age, and, I believe, the most challenging poet in America today. From him the poetry of nameless men of anonymous generations, not a poetry of collective dialectics but a literature of beliefs and emotions that form an enduring pattern of human life . . . He reaffirms the idea of human freedom in poetry that belongs to our country and our times.

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BUKOWSKI'S IMAGIST ROOTS

*by Jimmie Cain**

In his foreword to *It Catches My Heart in Its Hand*, John William Corrington suggests that the poet Charles Bukowski

> has replaced the formal, frequently stilted diction of the Pound-Eliot-Auden days with a language devoid of the affectations, devices and mannerisms that have taken over academic verse and packed the university and commercial quarterlies with imitations of Pound and others. Without theorizing, without plans or schools or manifestos, Bukowski has begun the long awaited return to a poetic language free of literacy pretense and supple enough to adapt itself to whatever matter he chooses to handle. (5)

Corrington goes on to say that Bukowski has done for the American vernacular "what William Carlos Williams claimed to have done" (5). Although Corrington correctly observes that Bukowski swears no allegiance to "plans or schools or manifestos," it seems nonetheless quite clear that William Carlos Williams' particular brand of Imagism has influenced Bukowski's art. Indeed, Bukowski incorporates many of the themes and poetic techniques found in Williams' work. Consequently, an examination of the philosophy behind Williams' poetry will illuminate Bukowski's debt and, moreover, reveal the extent to which Bukowski accomplishes what "Williams claimed to have done."

Underlying Williams' aesthetic are the concepts of the founding father of Imagism, the British poet T. E. Hulme. Rejecting out of hand the romantic sentiment in poetry, Hulme objected "to the sloppiness which doesn't consider that a poem is a poem unless it is moaning or whining about something or other" (Hulme 127). Hulme envisioned a new classicism—not a return to Greco-Roman verse forms and themes, but a return to a classical conception of man—to replace romantic poetry:

> One can define the classical quite clearly as the exact opposite to this (the romantic view of man). Man is a fixed and limited animal whose nature is absolutely constant. It is only by tradition and organisation that anything decent can be got out of him. (Hulme 116)

Because romantic verse has played "all the possible tunes" (121), Hulme felt that such poetry had outlived its usefulness. He also discounted the romantic belief that beauty is to be found in the otherworldly, the transcendental. "The essence of poetry to most people," he wrote, "is that it must lead them to a beyond of some kind" (127), for man is "unable to admit the existence of beauty without the infinite being in some way or the

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other dragged in" (126).

This new classical verse would contain nothing of the ideal, but would mirror the "fixed and limited" condition of man:

> The classical poet never forgets this finiteness, this limit of man. He remembers always he is mixed up with the earth. He may jump, but he always returns back; he never flies away into the circumambient gas. (120)

The great aim of this classicism is the "accurate, precise and definite description" (132) of common things. Classical poetry arrests the reader's attention and concentrates it on tangible objects (134). To keep the reader from slipping into transcendent abstractions, the poem presents only concrete, easily recognizable images. For Hulme, these images are not merely decorative, as in romantic verse, but the "very essence of intuitive language" (135).

Hulme's statements galvanized the then-aspiring poets Ezra Pound and F. S. Flint, who with Hilda Doolittle, Richard Aldington, Amy Lowell, John Gould Fletcher, and William Carlos Williams formed "Les Imagistes." The Imagists, as they are more commonly known, adopted Hulme's prescriptions and resolved to create poetry concerned with the precise and accurate description of concrete images. Flint subsequently produced his famous guidelines for Imagism:

1. Direct treatment of the "thing," whether subjective or objective.
2. To use absolutely no word that did not contribute to the presentation.
3. As regarding rhythm: to compose in sequence of the musical phrase, not in sequence of a metronome. (199)

To these rules Pound added the warning to "go in fear of abstractions" (201). Amy Lowell appended the requirements that Imagist poetry should use "the language of common speech," create "new rhythms," "present an image," be "hard and clear, never blurred nor indefinite," and allow the poet "absolute freedom" in the choice of subject matter (Pratt 22).

Although Pound, Flint, and Lowell made different demands of Imagism, the thrust for each is essentially the same as Hulme's. All insisted on the use of pure images—images unencumbered by sentimentality or abstract philosophizing. The image alone had to present some truth or intention; individual images were not to rely on groups of ideas to transmit meaning. The isolated image was to contain what William Pratt terms "a moment of revealed truth," and its effect had to be "instantaneous rather than cumulative" (29).

Of equal importance to each author was that the poet write only in common, everyday language. The poet had to use language economically

as well, producing only the exact number of words needed to present an unobstructed image. To achieve this goal, it was necessary that the poet shun the use of abstractions. By leaving out all rational and moral commentary, Imagist poets attempted to maintain objectivity. Mindful of this demand, Pound argued that Imagist verse had to "be as much like granite as it can be" (12). He further insisted that the "sparer, starker, more striking the image, the better the poem" (Pratt 30).

Bukowski's poetry certainly exhibits the "powerful imagery" (Holland 31), the spontaneity, and the toughness called for by Hulme, Pound, and Lowell, and the poem "I Taste the Ashes of Your Death" recalls much of Hulme's poetry:

> the blossoms shake
> sudden water
> down my sleeve,
> sudden water
> cool and clean
> as snow—
> as the stem-sharp
> swords
> go in
> against your breast
> and the sweet wild
> rocks
> leap over
> and
> lock us in.

The rocks which "leap over" the lovers bring to mind the "ruddy moon" which "leans over a hedge" in Hulme's "Autumn." Notwithstanding the similarities to Hulme, Bukowski's work is more akin to the poetry of William Carlos Williams than to that of the other Imagists, for like Williams, Bukowski writes only in a language that "is sensitive, harsh, yet always accessible to the most turned-off layman" (Katz 1848), in a verse that is "simple, casual, honest, uncooked" (Rexroth 5), and his images come solely from the common, everyday occurrences of contemporary American society.

Williams' poetry differs from that of the other Imagists because it operates strictly in the American idiom and presents nothing foreign to American culture. Williams broke away from the group when he sensed that their poetry was departing from the "language of common speech" to stay close to his American sources and avoid the derivativeness that made poems like Pound's "The Spring" and Aldington's "Lesbia" alien to his desire for "new" (Rosenthal xix) and original poetry which he hoped to create by writing in a style suitable for modern sensibilities (Perkins 544).

Hence his condemnation in "Prologue to Kora in Hell":

> our prize poems are especially to be damned not because of superficial bad workmanship, but because they are rehash, repetition—just as Eliot's more exquisite work is rehash, repetition in another way of Verlaine, Baudelaire, Maeterlinck—conscious or unconscious—just as there were Pound's early paraphrases from Yeats and his constant later cribbing from the Renaissance, Provence and the modern French: Men content with the connotations of their masters. (21)

In like fashion, Bukowski addresses modern sensibilities. Realizing that today's reader expects to see present realities depicted in art and literature, Bukowski deals exclusively in contemporary concerns, such as sex, drugs, violence, disease, death, and man's inhumanity to his fellow man. To quote Hugh Fox, Bukowski is "an authentic, the real-thing, because he talks from the vantage point of the pavement, the dog biscuit factory, the whore house, the park bench, the run-down room with the shabby shade and worn-out rug stretched feebly across the sagging floor"(95). Another of his abiding themes is the apparent meaninglessness and futility of existence, a dominant twentieth-century interest. His use of language, equally as modern and realistic as his topics, "can make words dance and roar like an earthquake or whisper softly like a Spring breeze freshening the fetid air of the streets where men past caring sleep fitfully in flophouse cubicles" (Conroy 5). The first stanza of the poem "Success" typifies his use of "common speech":

> I had a most difficult job
> starting my 14 year old car today
> in 100 degree heat
> I had to take the carburetor off
> leap back and forth
> adjusting the set-screw,
> a 2 by 4 jammed against the gas pedal
> to hold it down.

Save for one technical reference—adjusting the set-screw—the poem contains nothing remotely incomprehensible. Yet, in a minimum of words, Bukowski conveys an image of despair recognizable to many.

The poem "face of a political candidate on a street billboard" offers an even better example of Bukowski's adherence to everyday American locutions. In sixteen short lines, he captures the essence of the American politico:

> there he is:
> not too many hangovers
> not too many fights with women
> not too many flat tires

never a thought of suicide
not more than three toothaches
never missed a meal
never in jail
never in love
7 pairs of shoes
a son in college
a car one year old
insurance policies
a very green lawn
garbage cans with tight lids
he'll be elected.

In this brief, unassuming sketch, Bukowski exposes not only the superficiality of the "billboard" politician, but also the gullibility of the American voter, expressing in a sparsity of language a complex idea without the aid of abstractions, generalizations, or foreign terms.

In addition to writing only in "common speech," Bukowski shares Williams' penchant for local color. Believing that poetry had to find its primary impetus in "local conditions" (Perkins 553), Williams determined to use the images of his native America in his poetry, feeling that he could find the meaning of American life in the most common of things. Bukowski displays the same devotion to local color in his poem "the violin player," a work very similar to Williams' "At the Ball Game." As in "At the Ball Game," the action in "the violin player" centers on the expression of individuality, the "detail" which makes the crowd "beautiful" ("At the Ball game" ll. 11-12), in the midst of a faceless crowd. The setting, likewise, is an athletic event, a horse race in this instance, and the audiences share a "spirit of uselessness/ which delights them" ("At the Ball Game" ll. 3-4), wishing "only to be amused by the action before them . . . willing to be amused by life and death as well as sports" (Guimond 57). Like the "flashy female" and the "Jew" ("At the Ball Game" l. 19 and l. 21), the violin player is "ignored" ("the violin player" l. 11), yet all three have "It," the "beauty. . . / that lives/ day by day in them" ("At the Ball Game" ll. 25-27).

Beyond his similarities to Williams in language and imagery, Bukowski's characterizations are almost identical to those of the older poet. Commonly the only person Williams' poetry characterizes is the author himself. Such pieces as "Danse Russe," "Tract," "January Morning," "Sprouts," "Waiting," "The Widow's Lament in Springtime," and many others are first-person-singular accounts, each in some way revealing something of the poet's psyche, his conceptualization of himself. Similarly, Bukowski's "the red porsche," "the drill," "Yankee Doodle," and "claws of paradise" confess much about the author, and it would not be imprudent to suggest that Bukowski excels at testimonial verse, as in the poem "hot month":

got 3 women coming down in
July, maybe more
they want to suck my blood-
vibes

do I have enough
clean towels?

I told them that I was feeling
bad
(I didn't expect all these
mothers
arriving with their tits
distended)

you see
I am too good
with the drunken letter
and the drunken phonecall
screaming for love
when I probably won't
have it

Not all his reflective poetry is as morose as "hot month," however, as other pieces convey a poignant suppleness and depth of emotion. This sensitivity animates "fair stand the fields of France":

in the awesome strumming of no
guitars
I can never get too high

in places where giraffes run like
hate
I can never get too lonely

in bars where celluloid bartenders
serve poisoned laughter
I can never get too drunk

at the bottom of mountains
where suicides flow into the streams
I smile better than the Mona Lisa

high lonely drunken grin of grief
I love you.

Certainly, Bukowski does follow the literary trail laid down by Williams, updating his predecessor's demands with an infusion of contemporary language. And even though some critics argue that "No establishment is likely to ever recruit Bukowski" (Rexroth 5) and that he "cannot be classified or yoked with any other poet, living or dead" (Conroy

5), Bukowski's indebtedness to Williams seems obvious. Bukowski has heeded Williams' entreatment to make something new and original and to use distinctly modern, common language. And although the parallels in style and technique may appear to leave Bukowski open to the charge of dealing in "rehash [and] repetition," Williams' Imagism is but one path, though an admittedly well-traveled one, by which he expresses his own perceived truths and approaches the essence of art, something Bukowski defines in distinctly personal terms:

> "Art"
> as the spirit wanes
> the form appears.

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GREED IS DESTROYING OUR WORLD — A HUMAN SCIENCE STUDY

by James J. Barrell and Peter W. Lueders***

> In Wilkes-Barre, Pa., a woman suffered a broken leg and four others were injured when 1,000 people, some of whom had been waiting for eight hours, rushed into a Zayre's Department Store to snatch up the few Cabbage Patch Kids available.
>
> The store manager, William Shigo, armed himself with a baseball bat, "This is my life that's in danger," he said from behind a protective counter.

Greed. Hardly a day passes that the local newspaper doesn't record the unconscionable excesses of a third world dictator or the intemperate consumption of the world's natural resources. Preachers spare no diatribe in warning their congregations of greed's evil. We see it on the streets and hear it on the news—greed is very much a part of our lives.

But just what is greed? It is a curious fact that one of society's most insidious vices is so poorly understood. Webster's Collegiate Dictionary defines greed as "excessive desire for acquiring or having," but the behaviors that we perceive to be "greedy" are as likely to be labeled "avarice," "gluttony," "inconsideration," or "selfishness." There seems to be no common agreement as to what constitutes greed.

Any attempt to review past research into greed is met with frustration. There is none. This is not to suggest that so widespread and problematical a phenomenon as greed has escaped the attention of the entire research community. Rather, the paucity of greed research indicates the lack of an appropriate approach for its systematic study.

The study of greed must address both the perception of greed in others as well as the meaning of the experience "as lived." Through an analysis of our perceptions of greed we can determine the necessary and sufficient factors common to that experience and answer the question: What constitutes greed? Additionally, by exploring the experiences of those people who are perceived as being greedy, we can begin to understand the "inside" of those behaviors. This provides a better understanding and greater awareness of the phenomenon of greed that is vital to the solution of the various confrontational problems associated with it.

A traditional approach to research that focuses on behavior is wholly inappropriate to the study of greed. The greed phenomenon is best understood through an experiential perspective that examines the lived meanings related to human behavior. Much attention has been paid to the

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importance of a proper approach as the critical factor in developing a science of human experience (Giorgi 130; Van Kaam 66). The consequent emergence of Human Science Research methods provides just such an approach.

The Human Science Research method chosen for this study is the Experiential Method (J. J. Barrell and J. E. Barrell 63; Barrell and Price 75). With its stated aim to achieve clarity, this method begins with direct experience and concludes with a precise understanding of the structure of an experience. This goal is achieved through a four stage process: (1) co-investigators notice either immediate, or re-live past experiences, (2) the experiences are recorded in a prescribed manner (first person, present tense), (3) numerous reports, from various situations, are prepared for the experience in question, and (4) co-investigators ask: What is common across the experiences in these different situations?

Method

A study group composed of 14 male and 18 female under-graduate psychology students, ages 19 to 35, served as co-investigators in this study. The group discussed two distinct questions: (1) What do we experience when we perceive greedy behavior in others?, and (2) What do *we* experience when our behaviors are perceived as greedy by ourselves or others? By recording descriptions of both immediate and past (re-lived) experiences of greed, co-investigators recounted a wide variety of situations leading to a greater generality of the findings.

The investigation was conducted in two phases. During the initial phase, each participant was asked to record eight separate instances of the greed experience: four from an "outer" perspective (i.e. perception of greed in others), and four from an "inner" perspective. The inner perspective provided descriptions of experiences when their related behaviors were labeled as greedy by self or others. A report of each experience was made "as lived;" in first person, present-tense format. Participants were also instructed to avoid historical, mechanical, poetical, and interpretive accounts of their experiences (J. J. Barrell and J. E. Barrell 69). The resulting descriptions were analyzed in phase two to determine the essential structure of the experience of greed.

Phase two was conducted over a three-week period in accord with an experiential method for consensual validation (Barrell et al. 106). This method consisted of a four-stage process: (1) presentation of each investigator's personal understanding of the experiential structure, (2) clarification of the ways in which co-investigators agree or disagree, (3) referring back, as necessary, to the experiential description to resolve disagreements, and (4) reaching consensus regarding the structure of the experience.

The above method was employed in the following manner. All proposed common factors were listed on a chalkboard. Drawing from personal experience, investigators argued, one at a time, for or against each factor. Because of the possibility that the same common factor might be expressed in different words, participants were instructed to pay particular attention to the *meaning* implicit in that common factor. Specifically, each common factor must be present in *every* experience of greed, and the final list of factors must be able to discriminate greed from any other type of experience.

Findings

The Perception of Greed

Common factors were determined through an analysis of descriptive data covering a variety of situations. Descriptions were categorized as being from either an "inner" or "outer" perspective. The perception of greed in others represents an "outer" perspective. The following are four examples:

1. My roommate's little boy had his birthday party this weekend. He was three. I went to the party and the following experience occurred:

   I am standing watching the kids eat their cake and ice cream. I notice this one kid. He hasn't eaten any cake but has completely finished his ice cream. The kid next to him gets up and goes to play. He gets the other kid's ice cream. His mother tries to take it away from him. He is shoveling this ice cream in his mouth as fast as he can before she takes it away. She lifts the cup of ice cream and he screeches. He grabs the ice cream back. A tug-of-war between mother and son ensues. Finally she gives it to him and he eats every bite.

2. While I was waiting to talk to a professor I noticed a young male student reading a note on the bulletin board. I watched as he pulled it from the board and stuffed it in his books. I had the following experience:

   I think to myself, "What a jerk! He could just as easily have written down the information he needed. That information is for everyone—not just him." He begins to walk away. I can't believe it. I feel myself getting tense. I want to confront him. As I begin to pursue him the office door opens and I'm called in. I turn and walk into the office.

3. My three roommates and I were watching T.V. last week when the following experience occurred:

   At 12:30 three of us all watch the same soap opera. The fourth roommate decides she is the majority and wants to watch an old movie classic. She does not ask our opinion, but instead turns to the station. She stands in front of the T.V. for periods of ten minutes at a time while running back and forth to the mirror to fix her hair. All

the time she's saying, "Don't turn the T.V.!" I begin to feel she's hogging the T.V. and if she wants to watch an old movie she should watch it in her room.

4. There was a party at my apartment. I had bought a case of beer and there were several people over. I had the following experience:

John is here and did not bring any beer. I see him drinking my beer. No problem. But now I see him taking a beer or two and putting them in his coat pocket. I can't believe that someone at my house is, to put is bluntly, not only being greedy but stealing (in a sense) my beer. John, what the hell are you doing! I'm letting you drink my beer. I'm amazed that he is being so greedy with my beer.

Common factors implicit in the above type of descriptions represent both the necessary and sufficient conditions for the perception of greed to occur. Researchers reached consensus on the following factors:

X is perceived as:

1. *Keeping others from having their part of a limited supply*—here the individual is hoarding or consuming more than his or her entitlement. This violates our sense of "fair play." Equally important is the perception of a finite supply. The ice cream, the message taken from the board, and the beer each represent a fixed quantity—to be made available to all in an equitable manner.

2. *Being no more deserving than self or others* — How deserving of the item is X? We make an immediate value judgment. In example number one the other children are presumed to be equally (or more) deserving of the ice cream. Were the greedy child known to be starving, and therefore perceived as more "deserving" than the others, his behavior would not be perceived as greedy. Clearly, this factor is necessary but not sufficient for the perception of greed.

3. *Ignoring the perspectives of other(s)* — Greedy behavior is obvious and readily recognized in others. Therefore, we presume X must also be aware of this greed—he must *know* what he is doing. There is a lack of empathy (i.e. putting oneself in the place of others). We feel X is consciously ignoring the viewpoints of those around him as he persists in greedy behavior.

4. *Being preoccupied with his/her wants or needs* — In the eyes of the perceiver X is experiencing a form of "tunnel vision." For the moment, X's world is no bigger than the "target" of his desire—the ice cream, the message on the board, watching a classic movie, etc. The terms "wants" and "needs" refer to the relative significance of the target to X. "Needs," for example, are experienced as more important than "wants" or "likes.

"Inside" Greedy Behavior

Now, let us look at what is actually happening in our own experience

when our behavior is pointed out as being greedy by either ourselves or others. Interestingly enough, there is no direct *experience* of greed in ourselves. It is not even a felt emotion like happiness or anger. Greed exists only as the *perception of a behavior*. To recognize greed in ourselves we must assume an "outer" perspective, that is, imagine "stepping outside" ourselves and seeing our behavior as another person would. In the following examples, those experiences which are "inside" the behavior perceived as greedy will be the source of data. Again, four examples:

1. I walked into Eckerd Drugs knowing that I needed to find a magazine that had some good business articles in it. I had the following experience:

I flip through the magazine until I find it (the article). To my surprise and relief, it's only one page. This is great. This means less reading and an easier evaluation. But, as I stand here I'm thinking, "Why pay almost $2.00 for a one-page article?" So, I look around. No one seems to be paying me much attention. I see no hidden cameras. So I hold my finger on the page and close the magazine over my hand. Slowly I rip the page out. The tearing noise is so loud. My face feels so hot. I feel my heart pounding. I think, "I'm stealing something, but then again it's only one piece of paper." Well, I've got the page out. I wad it up and walk out of the store. I made it. I got my article without spending any money and I feel relieved.

2. I was eating pizza with one male and two female friends. There were three pieces left. The girls were not the least bit interested in pizza. My friend and I each took a piece of pizza. There was one piece left. I had the following experience:

So, it's just you and me. Immediately the act of eating pizza becomes a competition. My eyes shift back to the last piece of pizza in the pan. I'm eating very quickly now—I don't even taste it. Just one piece left and it's mine. I deserve it more than he does—I'm bigger, and hungrier. I look across the table. He's eyeing the last piece, too. I'd better make my move. I reach for the last piece. Mine, all mine. I think I'll eat this last piece slowly.

3. I went to a bar over the weekend with one of my friends. These guys kept coming up, asking us to dance, and buying our drinks. I had the following experience:

I keep thinking that this guy must really have the bucks. He asks me if I want anything. I tell him, "A beer, please." A while later, after we've danced some more, he asks me again. I reply, "A beer, please," again. I can't believe this guy is spending so much money on me and my friend. I keep telling her that whoever asks me if I want something, I'm going to tell them, "A beer, please." I am

thinking I want to see how many beers I can get someone else to buy me and if they'll buy more for me than my friend.

4. I was in my car at the bank waiting for a parking space. I was in a hurry to make an appointment. One lady was backing out of a space, another was waiting for her. I had the following experience:

I'm feeling that she's taking too much time to get in the space. I feel that I have enough time to get in the space so I drive around the corner and take it knowing the lady was waiting to turn in. She's beginning to blow her horn at me. I'm not paying it any attention.

Utilizing the same process of consensual validation summarized above, investigators determined the following common factors for the experiential correlatives of greedy behavior:

1. *I am preoccupied with fulfilling my desire/need* — Identical to one of the common factors in the perception of greed. The world "shrinks" as attention is drawn to the target of the desire. Behaviors are determined by the specific strategy chosen to satisfy the desire or need. In example number one the desire to "get something for nothing" motivates the individual to rip the page from the magazine. Desire/need represents a range of significance the object may hold for that person.

2. *I do not consider myself undeserving* — The individual is judging him/herself to be worthy of the target. Often the feeling of guilt must be "dealt with" as we become aware of how our behaviors might be perceived by others. We are incredibly creative in justifying our behaviors to ourselves. Even in the case where we might stop for a moment and question whether or not we are greedy, a justification occurs that can allow for the continuation of the behavior. "I'm stealing, but then again it's only one piece of paper." (example 1), and "I deserve it more than he does—I'm bigger, and hungrier." (example 2), both justify behaviors about which the person feels guilty. Through justification we make ourselves deserving of the goal. Also, if we feel we must secure our futures; if we think highly of ourselves; or if we feel that we have suffered greatly in the past, then we are deserving of as much as we can get. There is *no* limit!

3. *I expect I can fulfill the goal* — This is a question of motivation. Without a reasonable expectation (i.e. greater than chance) that the goal can be achieved, there is no action. "Reasonable expectation" is determined by the personal meaning attached to the perception of an event and varies according to the confidence the person has in his ability to attain the goal.

4. *I feel I have more to gain than to lose by acting* — The individual carefully weighs the perceived risk of the greedy behavior against its expected outcome. When the desire or need for that goal is greater than the

possible negative consequences of that behavior, the risk is judged acceptable and the person acts. In example one, the possible results of getting caught ripping the page out of the magazine are overshadowed by the desire to "(get) my article without spending any money."

Differentiation of Experiences Related to Greed

Our analysis of greed has allowed us to make comparisons with other perceived actions such as avarice, gluttony, inconsideration, and selfishness. Avarice represents a specific type of greed. In this case the target of desire is wealth. Avaricious behaviors are motivated by an insatiable desire to amass great wealth. While all avaricious behavior is greedy, not all greedy behaviors are money-related.

Unlike greed, a person viewed as gluttonous is NOT *perceived as keeping others from having their part of a limited supply.* They are simply "stuffing themselves"—oblivious to others around them. "Being a pig" is the phrase commonly used to describe gluttonous behaviors.

Let us take the case of inconsideration. Suppose you are sitting in the first row at a concert and people are leaving the dance floor in front of you. However, two couples stop to talk right in front of you before leaving the floor. The band appears and they are obstructing the views of both you and others seated around you. These people can be perceived as inconsiderate but not greedy. This is because they are perceived as NOT *consciously ignoring the perceptions of others.* Now, if they are asked to move and do not, then we could perceive them as greedy.

Finally, let us compare greed with selfishness. Whereas selfishness is "taking care of only our needs," greed is "taking more than we need." Selfishness refers to experiencing ourselves as "number one"—the world "revolves around us." Because of pre-occupation with one's own wants and needs, selfishness is an important factor (cause) in any action that can be perceived as greedy. It is not a separate experience from greed, but rather, a component of it.

Emotional Responses to Greed

Our responses to greed are quite different depending on whether we experience ourselves or others as greedy. It is likely that we will feel guilt in the former and anger in the latter situation. For ourselves, guilt is the most uncomfortable feeling. For after all, in this situation we join others in becoming upset with ourselves. When we "turn on ourselves" there is no escape from this bad feeling. We cannot "walk away" from ourselves.

Emotions, like anger and guilt, are not necessary for the perception of greed or its correlative inner experience. They are reactions to these meaning structures. However, although these emotions are simply reactions, they are particularly important in confrontational situations.

As reactions, the intensity of anger and guilt depends on our own needs

and desires. For example, if one is tearing a page from a public phone book, our anger in response to the perceived greedy behavior is increased if we need to use that phone book ourselves. In short, we intensify the emotions of anger and guilt as we take these situations more personally.

Discussion

The Problem

To solve the problem of greed we must first explore the difference between behavior viewed as meaning or as action. Behavior as action represents the "objective reality"—a specific series of physical movements about which we, as perceivers, can agree. From this perspective the cause or purpose of the behavior is external to the perceiver (i.e. it lies in the "actor"). Imagine, for example, the following classroom situation: In the middle of a lecture a student hurriedly walks out of class without saying a word. Anyone noticing the student would likely agree to the "facts" about *what* happened: a student got up from his desk, picked-up his books, and walked out the door—he didn't say a word. When viewed simply as "action," the behavior is "absolute."

Though behavior may be viewed as "action," it is *understood* as "meaning." In the above example we attach meaning to the student's behavior based on our own perspective, or mind-set, at that particular moment (Robbins 48). In this instance the meaning of another's behavior lies in the "mind" of the *perceiver*. If we had experienced the lecture as being dry or unimaginative, it becomes "obvious" to us that the student left out of boredom. If we were aware of the flu epidemic on campus and not feeling very well ourselves, we might believe the student *must* have left because he was sick. We could assume the student had an important appointment or a personal emergency; there are numerous possibilities. It is important to note that the meaning we ascribe to the behavior represents our "subjective reality" and satisfies the question: *Why?*. The meaning of the behavior is determined by the perceiver and peculiar to the context. Nevertheless, these meanings do not determine the actual causes of the behavior as an *action*.

It is clear that the cause of the perception of greed lies in the "mind" of the perceiver. Insofar as solutions to greed-related problems are concerned, the significance of this statement cannot be overemphasized. We cannot control the perceptions of others. Instead we must look to the factors common to the "inner" experience of greedy behavior (i.e. those actions perceived as greedy) if we hope to curb the problems of greed.

Common factors are both necessary and sufficient for the occurrence of a particular experience and represent the specific structure of that experience. Consequently, the elimination of any single factor makes that experience impossible. To control the common factors of the "inner" experience of greed is to control greed.

The world of the individual preoccupied with fulfilling a desire or need is necessarily small. As one attends to the particular goal, awareness of the social context diminishes and that person becomes "isolated" from the rest of the world. In this isolation, the world exists as a series of discrete spatial-temporal events (i.e. it has been objectified). From this perspective the individual no longer views the "big picture." That is, an awareness of the rich, multi-level, ever-evolving relationship one shares with the world is lost. The consequences of need-satisfying behaviors beyond the *immediate* context are similarly affected. While those viewing the behavior might perceive a *willful disregard* of the needs of others, this is not the experience from the inner perspective.

The person concerned with need-satisfaction may assume either of two attitudes toward the future: (1) denial of the future, or (2) faith in the future. Denial of the future occurs when an individual believes there *is* no future in which to satisfy needs. Needs must be satisfied HERE AND NOW. Just such an attitude was expressed in a popular beer jingle, "You only go around once in life. Grab for all the gusto you can get!" On the other hand, having faith in the future presumes a belief in unlimited resources. For example, the person using an inordinate amount of water in the midst of a drought might feel justified in the belief that "it is bound to rain soon, we've never been this long without it." Such a belief denies the truth that for any given period of time available resources are limited. Either attitude is fundamental to greed-related behaviors and each rejects the truth: the future is open-ended and forever changing.

Accepting an unknown future, filled with question and doubt, threatens our vital sense of security. Security exists only in certainty. But how can we feel safe and secure knowing that a single accident or "act of God" can bring physical, emotional, and/or financial ruin? To feel secure we must look out for #1—provide for every foreseeable contingency. Logically, this is impossible. And yet, our desire for security is overwhelming. This high desire for security coupled with an uncertainty about being able to attain it is all that is necessary to produce anxiety and its related stress (Barrell et al. 111; J. J. Barrell, Sindledecker, and J. E. Barrell 256). Moreover, this stress is *forever* unless we can "control" the future. From this perspective, both denying the future and having faith in the future (e.g. investing in greedy behaviors!) are viable means of dealing with basic security concerns.

The Solution

Becoming more aware of the "self-in-context" is certainly part of the solution to this dilemma. We each play many roles in life, but are usually cognizant of only the most immediate. Our relations as friend, lover, family member, and coworker are frequently acknowledged. Equally important are the positions we hold as members of society, citizens of the world, and even, residents of the cosmos. By "opening the frame of

reference" to incorporate these broader perspectives, individuals begin to see and better appreciate their position and relation to others and the world in which they live. This recognition of the interdependence of man and world promotes a vital sense of affiliation and security.

For many of us, our interdependence with the world is not so clear. Technology has amply provided for our safety and comfort, and few Americans still struggle to draw their subsistence directly from the land on which they live. While safe and secure in our temperature-controlled homes with all the amenities, we easily forget (or ignore) the relation we share with the earth. Technology has provided a "higher standard" of living, but not without cost. The many decades of thoughtless strip-mining, deforestation, and the wasteful use of water reserves have left our future heavly mortgaged. Technology, with its promise for a "better tomorrow—today," denies our dependence on the world and its limited resources.

Developing an expanded awareness of ourselves as part of a greater whole need not be difficult. The following five to ten minute exercise is but one of many possible methods. Like most exercises, maximum benefits will be gained through daily repetition. The exercise:

> Find a comfortable place outdoors and sit quietly. Look at the scene around you, paying close attention to your sensations: the the colors, the shapes, the textures, the sounds around you, the feel of the wind on your face, the smells in the air, etc. Stay with these impressions without *thinking* about them. Now, *feel* your body as a part of these natural surroundings. As you begin to feel this connection with nature, "get in touch" with the *fact* that you are *in* the immensity of an unlimited universe. You are an integral part of it. There is nothing to imagine or visualize, simply stay with the understanding of this fact and feel its reality.

Increased awareness of context brings a different perspective. While individual experiences will necessarily vary, certain common factors are always present. Here is an account of one person's experience with the exercise:

> I was sitting outside a restaurant. The weather was sunny and pleasant. I began to idly reflect on my place in the universe. As I began to feel the "reality" of my situation I had the following experience:
>
> My body begins to feel more and more relaxed and I begin to experience a calm "intensity." I take another breath and the world rushes up to embrace me—I am "absorbed." Immediately there is a multiplicity of vivid sights, sounds, and smells. The world exists as a rich tapestry or mosaic in which every item, every event, blends smoothly with another. As I move my gaze from the

clouds, to the trees, to the ground, to my feet, I perceive no gaps or "voids." I feel my "presence" (i.e. I am *here*) as part of a limitless whole—differentiated but not separated. Everything exists in a "common space." No single impression is more important than any other and no impression has just one meaning. Both time and ("empty") space have dissolved. I feel secure. I am at peace. I do not want to leave this place.

While awareness of the relationship we share with the world is important, it is not sufficient to overcome such anti-social behaviors as greed. We must acknowledge our position "in the world" as well as "of the world." For example, few would question that a swami or guru engrossed in a world of quiet meditation understands he is "of the world." But, his contribution as an individual "in the world" is somewhat less clear. There is an "ambiguity" in experiencing our relationship to the whole. This ambiguity must be overcome if we hope to transform those experiences (i.e. discover the causes) which lie behind our behaviors. "Awareness," of itself, is not necessarily a "call to action."

The Experiential Method used in this study provides just the necessary process by which to achieve a *clear* understanding of the specific structure of any experience. The common factors we derive through self-observation and self-report are within us and, as such, under our influence. By understanding these experiential factors we can increase the range of choices available to us, and live "in the world" more effectively.

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"SHOCK'UN" A SON GOUT: CONCEPT OF ART AT WEST GEORGIA COLLEGE

*by Dorothy Joiner**

Proceeding on Brumbelow Drive toward the West Georgia campus, Monday morning, December 1, 1986, I happened to glance in the direction of the school. At first startled, then delighted, I saw a voluminous parachute of creamy white, orange, and muted khaki draped casually over the roof of the Humanities Building. The unwonted sight jogged my memory: the Concept Art Exhibition to be staged by Bruce Bobick's art history class, Modern Art 310. I was in fact arriving a little early in order to add my own conceptual piece to the display.

The building quickly lapsed from view as the road descended, and I rounded the corner onto West Georgia Drive. I gaped in disbelief at the bevy of police cars, lights aflash, parked in a narrow lane leading to the Humanities Building. The object of their attention fairly glowed in the parking lot. A bright yellow behemoth of an auto wrapped in clear Saran was parked sideways so as to occupy no less than three of the coveted spaces in this always overpopulated area. The extra-wide plastic enveloping this oversized Oldsmobile from the early 70's ended in a kind of twisted "umbilical cord," attached to a telephone pole. A somewhat amused young policeman was ticketing the gaudy, meretricious vehicle. (In French and in Italian all the words for various kinds of cars are feminine.) In felicitous harmony with the "cocoon" symbolism of the wrapping, the officer asked the artist Christy Benton, "Did you imagine that by wrapping this wreck, it would turn into a Rolls?"

I learned later that Christy's idea had come to her during a class discussion of Concept Art. She originally considered covering three spaces in the student lot with gravel. Her "work" would have jolted those seeking a parking slot into considering the scarcity and hence the value of the space. But she then determined that cleaning up the gravel would be far too onerous. The troublesome gravel was therefore transmogrified into an easier-to-remove mammoth car, especially chosen for its well-established flashy notoriety on the campus. The wrapped vehicle held several levels of symbolism for Christy. She thought of it first as a kind of "land yacht," anchored with a cord "so that it wouldn't get away." It represented at the same time a plastic cocoon, the meaning of which the astute policeman had perceived. And on yet another level of meaning, the Saran-wrapped yellow car was chosen for its shock value, alerting the viewer to its occupancy of valuable space. This space was indeed expensive: the policeman had affixed a $10.00 ticket to the door handle. Happily, however, Christy appealed the charge, which was finally rescinded.

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Hardly having had time to savor the idea of the giant cocoon-car, I was hurried into the building by Phil Price, who implored me to help him disassemble his own concept work on the second-floor landing of the northeast stairwell. The police had threatened to arrest him if he failed to clear the stairs immediately. Unfortunately, there was no time to enjoy the intricately festooned party space that Phil had created. We had to rip away the carefully crafted arrangement as quickly as we could.

Had I the leisure to look, I would have been immediately confronted with the poster of a sultry woman and her sinuous cat, both archetypal symbols of evil. A second poster, positioned to be seen by those descending the stairs from the third floor, depicted a woman behind Levelor blinds, gaily kicking up her heels and playing a trumpet. Thus the contrasting posters offered two aspects of celebration: on the one hand, its potentially negative side, and, on the other, its festivity and fun. Phil continued the party theme with shiny aluminum foil over the railing, balloons, streamers, and multi-colored throw rugs—all suggestive of joyous abandon. In contrast, Phil added unattached limbs of mannequins, as well as a wastebasket gorged with empty aluminum cans: Coke, 7-Up, and Budweiser. These last images represented the underside of celebration, its often bitter aftertaste. They echoed the evil manifested by the first poster.

The party side of Phil's work was juxtaposed to a spare desk covered with twine woven into a kind of web. Here Phil symbolized the other half of a student's life, its arduous work, the twine web indicating the confinement occasioned by a life dedicated to study. Repeated in the space above the entire piece, the webbing was, in Phil's words, "hovering over a student's whole life, like a trap," its partying as well as its lucubrations. In fact, the web restricted all potential movement to such a degree that no festivity was really possible after all. The meaning of the bright aluminum overlay on the railing then becomes clear. It represented the glamorous but ultimately superficial and deceptive aspects of partying. After a few moments of our frantic dismantling, a policeman trudged up the stairs, declaring in an authoritative tone that Phil was to follow him. Was this mild-mannered, sensitive, courteous, and studious young man being arrested? I subsequently learned that Phil's crime was puncturing the cement block wall with three nail holes.

Returning to the ground floor, I saw a concept work I had missed on my initial hasty entry, a long strip of white paper several feet wide running the length of the south hall. Arrows drawn on the paper pointed to offices on the right, together with terse assessments of their occupants. The word "wisdom" indicated the domain of David Higgins, head of the philosophy department; and "distilled water" was inscribed beneath the arrow pointing to my own door, a good-natured jab at the wine bottles full of pure water that I have regularly carried into the building for years. The "mystery" artist of this piece has never been identified.

I was turned from an amused contemplation of this witty analogue of the white carpeting laid down at weddings by an acrimonious outburst near the elevator. That decrepit antique of a lift whose torpor we have all deplored was filled with rolls of newsprint and heavy black sculpture stands. The angry imprecations came from a teacher who was constrained either to remove the obstacles or to exercise what French philosopher Gaston Bachelard has termed "the heroism of climbing the stairs."

By this time, I was forced to abandon my enjoyment of the Concept Art Exhibition and head for class. When I was free again at 11:00 a.m., the other works had for the most part been removed; and I learned about them only later. Almost no part of the building was without concept art that morning. Jim Witt placed red danger signs over many of the electrical outlets, his work calling attention to the potentially lethal forces normally harnassed and hidden from view in the service of illumination and appliances.

Carol Summer taped satin cloth in graduated shades of violet, purple and orange over all the mirrors in the women's room on each of the three floors. Her title *Vanity* has a complex significance. First of all, it recalls the traditional ornamented vanity box for ladies, which usually contained powder, a puff, and a mirror. On another level, the title suggests the empty self-admiration associated with gazing in a mirror; and in yet a more universal sense, it echoes the age-old *vanitas* theme which proclaims the evanescence of earthly reality.

The southwest stairwell was also transformed by art. Between the second and third floors, Sherri Adams covered a single step with white felt, placing a DO NOT TOUCH sign nearby. She had intended to count the number of footprints at the end of the day. When the material was prematurely removed, however, everyone had graciously stepped over this pristine "sterile" step.

Holly Faircloth placed her work *Disposable Heroes* in the building's atrium. She painted stuffed garbage bags in conventional camouflage patterns, strewing the lumpy containers over the carpeted floor of the foyer. In the empty space, I am told, Holly's work took on the eerie look of dead bodies. When the area began to fill up with students, however, the mood brightened; and an atmosphere of excitement born of the ridiculous replaced the initial somber feel. Holly gives credit for the title to her younger brother, who borrowed it from a contemporary song. Holly's work focused on the ephemeral recognition which society offers to heroes such as veterans who have made sacrifices for the commonweal.

Just above *Disposable Heroes*, on the second floor of the atrium, Ivan Purcell used masking tape to cover the area bounded on three sides by a railing and open to the stairway on the fourth. Titled *Bridging the Gulf*,

Ivan's piece interrupted the continuity of space between the first and second floors and blocked temporarily the vantage of those who customarily lean over the railing to view the activity on the lower floor. Spectators thus thwarted voiced their anger with surprising force.

Diane Eissler covered with a black drape the portrait of Kathy Cashen on the landing of the atrium stairway. Fascinated by the image of this smiling young woman who has given her name to the building's small auditorium, Diane investigated Ms. Cashen's history. Learning that she had died of leukemia in 1968, Diane wanted to reactivate, as it were, the memorial to her memory, now largely forgotten by most students. To make the point even stronger, Diane turned the bench on the landing around to face the picture. She thereby forced the observer to concentrate on the identity of the veiled portrait.

The Concept Exhibition even spilled out onto the campus beyond the building. As an untitled kind of interface between inside and out, Kurt Beshers placed sand on a portion of the second step of the porch around the building, smoothing the sand to an exact forty-five degree angle.

Another work serving as transition between indoors and out was Renée Tartaglione's entrance barricade. In front of two of the building's four entrances she positioned cardboard tubes, each three feet high, laced together with nylon webbing. To enter the building, it was necessary to be somewhat more active than usual, either moving the featherweight palissade or walking around it. Reactions to this blockade differed widely. On the west side facing the quadrangle, the webbed tubes were simply moved aside; but on the north, the barrier was angrily knocked down. One needs only to consider that this entrance is closest to the faculty parking lot.

Three concept pieces transformed the quadrangle into a short-lived art gallery. One student placed hundreds of colored toothpicks porcupine fashion into a mound. An administrator fearing that a student be impaled by these sharp wooden weapons termed the work "dangerous." Another student, Amanda Morris, erected a barrier of concrete blocks two and one-half feet tall over the narrowest point of the walkway leading toward the library. A pedestrian was thereby forced to leave the path to circumvent the temporary wall. A third work by Curtis Davis provided an intriguing amalgam of nature and art, of the natural and the artificial. He wrapped the branches and trunks of trees on the quadrangle with vinyl tape, creating interesting patterns in red and yellow.

Curtis adopted this technique from the well-known artist Marian J. Vieux, who has wrapped trees with vinyl on Ossabow Island in Georgia, in a Chicago churchyard, and outside the Evanston Art Center in Illinois. The artist says that she uses "the tree as a line in space, to follow a linear motion. . . . The line," she continues, "jumps out at you." Assuming its own

"unique and recognizable profile," each wrapped tree is "animated," as it were, by its artificial wrapping.

I later also learned more about the parachute floating in gentle swells on the corner of the roof. It was the work of Professor Bobick as a tribute to D. B. Cooper, the skyjacker who vanished after parachuting with a sack of money from a plane over the Northwest in the 1970's.

Another work should perhaps be added to this chronicle of the Concept Art Exhibition, that is, my own piece which remained very literally a concept because of the brouhaha generated by the exhibit. I had planned to encircle the departmental vacuum cleaner with the gold satin rope used in the gallery to cordon off especially valuable or delicate works of art. The machine was to have been left running with the title *Femme de ménage: Semper Courante*. This deliberately bastardized mélange of French and Latin translated as "cleaning woman, always running," was to my mind an ironic self-parody of the many unlikely tasks that fall one's way in academe.

The ingeniously contrived concept works created by Professor Bobick and his students participate in the post-Modernist, or more exactly, the anti-Modernist tradition developed during the 1970's. Concept artists reacted against the Modernist esthetic which had carried to its logical extreme the art-for-art's-sake legacy of the latter half of the nineteenth century. Modernist art exaggerated the importance of form over content, tending to divorce art from the flow of life in an increasingly self-referential esthetic. Although theoretically removed from mundane, material considerations, modernist works were in fact most frequently transformed into commodities by monied interests.

Seeking to reverse what he perceived as a hypocritical duality, the concept artist began to shy away from art objects altogether, preferring to confront his audience with the force of his own personality, indeed in some cases with his own body. Most frequently the concept artist wants to elicit an active response in his viewer, creating a participatory art in a literal sense. He seeks to return art to its most basic roots, that is to say, making it again a source of energy and perceptive understanding.

In this endeavor to counter what he sees as the mercenary proclivities of the art world, the concept artist often denies art as a concrete object. This "dematerialization" of the art object reverses a centuries-old tradition in Western art. Early medieval manuscript illuminators, for instance, bound their precious pages between gilded covers often encrusted with jewels to manifest the great worth of the scriptures which they recorded. And in the fifteenth century, Jan van Eyck painted the back of his panels in marbleized patterns, again to emphasize the object's great value.

Yet just as Modernist art became paradoxically bound by the corruptive

influences of money at the same time that it denied in theory the relevance of the material realm, so, too, is Concept Art replete with its own inherent ironies. Even as it repudiates the Modernist esthetic, Concept Art actually reinforces a fundamental though largely unarticulated Modernist premise, that is, the substitution of artistic discipline and esthetic transcendence for religion, a tendency begun in the latter half of the century. Several recent religion, a tendency begun in the latter half of the nineteenth century. examples of this substitution will suffice.

The Taiwanese artist Tehching Hsieh, for instance, imposes upon himself arduous serial life-styles, each for a year, this period symbolic of a whole life cycle. He once spent a year in a cage with neither television nor books nor radio; for another year he punched a time clock hourly, thereby depriving himself of normal periods of sleep; during a third year he lived completely out-of-doors in New York City.

Two American Buddhist Monks offer another striking example of art which assumes the role of religion. Traveling on foot from Santa Monica to the Oregon border, these monks stopped after each three steps to kiss the ground and to pray. Their trek is recorded on videotape.

But Chris Burden gives the most bizarre example of an effort toward self-transcendence through art. The artist crawled naked over a surface littered with shattered glass, was nailed to the roof of a Volkswagen in a strange kind of crucifixion, and had a friend shoot him in the arm from a distance of twelve feet.

From these examples it is obvious that the Concept artist most frequently assembles a "portfolio" of lively stories, photographs, and videotapes rather than objects such as those produced by a more conventional artist. It is in this lineage that I offer a written chronicle of the Concept Art Exhibition at West Georgia College. The talented students and their works which lasted so briefly in "material assemblage" should be remembered. Their art did far more than provide the matter for a five-page police report; it altered to a greater or less degree the perception of many on the campus. The artists of the Concept Art Exhibition merit our recognition.

ABSTRACTS OF MASTER'S THESES AND SPECIALIST IN EDUCATION PROJECTS

THE EFFECT OF LOW pH ON *DAPHNIA PULEX*

Lucius Geneve Adams, III
(MS, Biology, June, 1985)

Research in the area of acid rain has indicated topics which need further investigation. One of these topics is to determine the effect of low pH on all aquatic organisms with respect to survival, reproduction, and behavioral changes which may occur. *Daphnia pulex* was selected as a test organism for its significance in aquatic food chains, high rate of reproduction, and ease of culture. The problem was to investigate the effect of low pH on survival, growth, reproduction, morphology, and behavior. *D. pulex* was cultured in a defined medium and fed two species of algae, *Chlamydomonas reinhardi* and *Scenedesmus sp.* The test organisms were introduced into media at pH 4.8, 5.5, 6.6, and 7.0. Survival, average body length, number of eggs and births were determined over a 3 week period. Behavioral response to a change in wavelength of light was observed in test media of the 4 pH levels. At a pH of 4.8, there was a significant reduction in all variables. This would indicate that in ponds or lakes at a pH level of 4.8, populations of *D. pulex* would suffer considerably in areas of survival, growth and reproduction.

FOSTERING INVOLVEMENT THROUGH A CALENDAR OF BASIC SKILLS ACTIVITIES FOR PARENTS OF CHILDREN IN THE COWETA COUNTY SCHOOL SYSTEM

Nelda T. Boren
(EdS, Reading Instruction, August, 1986)

This study was undertaken for the purpose of providing a Calendar of Skills for parents of children in each of the grades kindergarten through three in the Coweta County School System and to analyze the data which were collected from parents concerning the utilization of the calendars and the helpfulness of the material contained in them. Calendars were distributed to all children at the beginning of the 1985-1986 school year. Data concerning the helpfulness of specific material in the calendar were collected from 322 randomly selected parents at the end of the year. Analysis of this data using chi square at the .05 level of significance

indicated that a significant number of parents found all items included in the calendar to be of value. Percentagesof parents who reported completion of at least 20 activities each month were tabulated by grade levels. Analysis of variance at the .05 level of significance determined that a significant difference existed among grade levels. The percentage of parents in second and third grade who reported utilization of calendar activities was lower than those reported in kindergarten. The average percentage of parents who reported use of the calendar activities decreased each month from September through April. The resuits of this study indicate that a significant number of parents utilized the Calendars of Skills and found the activities to be of value. It is recommended that such information continue to be provided in the future.

THE EFFECTS OF TEAMS-GAMES-TOURNAMENT ON THE ACHIEVEMENT OF FIFTH GRADE STUDENTS IN SOCIAL STUDIES

Beverly R. Chitwood
(EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1986)

This research was conducted to determine what effect the use of Teams-Games-Tournament has on the achievement of below grade level, grade level, and above grade level fifth-grade students in social studies. Teams-Games-Tournament is an academic game in which students work in heterogeneous teams to learn specific material and then compete as representatives of their teams with members of other teams who are like them in past academic performance.

Six heterogeneous fifth-grade classes at City Park School in Dalton, Georgia participated in the study. The six classes were randomly assigned to either the experimental group of the control group. The experimental and control groups received essentially the same social studies instruction with the exception of the Teams-Games-Tournament activities which were given to the experimental group.

The experiment was conducted for a nine-week instructional period. Both the experimental and the control groups received social studies instruction for 45 minutes per school day. The three control group teachers taught social studies using their usual methods. The three experimental group teachers covered the same material using the same textbook, but added Teams-Games-Tournament activities three times per week.

One hundred standardized questions from five chapters in the text *The United States and Its Neighbors* were used for the pretest and posttest to measure social studies achievement. The independent t-test was used to compare the mean scores on the posttests of the two groups. The mean

scores of the below grade level, grade level, and above grade level readers in the experimental group were also compared by t-test analysis with their respective counterparts in the control group.

Analysis of the data revealed that there was a significant difference in the achievement of students taught social studies with Teams-Games-Tournament. The experimental group had a higher mean score which was significant at the .01 level. Also, the experimental group's grade level readers scored higher at the .01 significance level. The experimental group's above grade level readers had higher scores which were significant at the .05 level. However, there was no significant difference in achievement when the below grade level readers in each group were compared.

Based on this research, Teams-Games-Tournament should be considered a valuable instructional method for elementary teachers. Further research using TGT under varying conditions was recommended.

A STUDY OF TEACHERS' OPINIONS OF USABLE CRITERIA FOR CONSIDERATIONS OF MERIT PAY IN MIDDLE GRADES

Jessica P. Cummins
(EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1986)

The purpose of this research was to study the opinions of teachers toward merit pay. Middle school teachers from five middle schools were surveyed. Schools were selected from different socio-economic sections of the school system.

Fifty-two percent or 130 teachers returned the survey. Out of 130 teachers, 20 were male and 110 were female. There were 71 holding a T-4 Certificate, 55 a T-5 Certificate, and 5 have a T-6 Certificate.

There were 51 teachers who had from 1-7 years of teaching experience, 48 had 8-12 years, 25 had 13-16 years, 4 had 19-24 years, and 3 had 25 or more years of teaching experience.

The survey consisted of 25 questions. Teachers responded by marking yes or no. The survey included questions from the areas of instruction, student management, professional responsibilities, and education and experience.

The majority of teachers preferred to be judged on the criteria found in the area of instruction and student management. Teachers approved some of the criteria in the area of professional responsibilities including lesson plans, school attendance, a positive attitude, punctuality, and a cooperative relationship with fellow staff members. However, in the area of education and experience the results were insignificant except the

criterion concerning scores on the Teachers Certification Test. An overwhelming majority of teachers did not want to be judged on their Teacher Certification Test score.

THE MYTH OF THE ANDROGYNE: GENDER, PSYCHOLOGY, AND THE DIALECTICS OF BEING

Donald E. Davis
(MA, Psychology, August, 1986)

As a growing number of historians are beginning to acknowledge, the building of western thought and culture has been an enterprise of what they are calling a male-centered or "patriarchal" attitude. The voice of femininity, they claim, has been reduced to a mere whisper, a faint cry in the wilderness of modernity. If a visiting anthropologist from another planet were to randomly leaf through the cherished works of our culture, in the halls of our great libraries, he or she would no doubt find something missing in the pages of these carefully guarded texts—texts written by and for males. Our anthropologist friend would see that the "lesser sex" has been almost universally, given little or or no status in the making of human history. Though women have given birth, nursed, protected, and cared for the children of an entire humanity, their documented "worth" remains hopelessly eclipsed by the scientific, technological, and rational "achievements" of a civilization that has given birth to such atrocities as the chemical waste dump, nuclear meltdown, and atomic warhead.

The purpose of this thesis is to critically discuss the problem of gender imbalance in the creation of civilization and culture. Under the umbrella of adrogyny, we can begin to explore the feminist vision without resorting to the dualisms of a non-dialectical approach. One of the powerful tenets of androgyny, is its ability to both transcend and maintain the feminist position without adhering to what Marilyn French has called the "ideological purity" of the feminist separatist. Ultimately, feminism is not about total separation from males or maleness but about a *harmonious* integration of the masculine-feminine worldview within a socially, culturally workable, framework. Unfortunately, some feminists failing to recognize this, claim, for example, that "for women to participate in our present (patriarchal) world is equivalent to their consorting with the enemy" (French, 1985, p.447). French says that this position, though partially influential and productive, leads to a "tendency toward totalitarianism" (p. 447).

The title, "The Myth of the Androgyne," was chosen primarily as a poetic metaphor with which to portray a much more profound picture of the power of the feminist vision as I see it. Although I will critically

discuss the role of the mythic androgyne (as reviewed in the anthropological, psychological, and religious literature), my main intent is to use the "myth" not only as an historical or psychological fact, applicable to our times, but as a way to symbolically illuminate the "dialectics of being." Certainly the androgynous idea has its roots in what Joseph Campbell (1968) calls the "archaic view." Nevertheless, we must not therefore suppose that this "ideal is to be encountered only 'in the dark backward and abysm of time'" (Heilbrun, 1973, p. xix). Androgyny, whether in its original mythic form, or as we confront it in present psychological discourse (e.g., Cook, 1985), continues to leave its mark on the literature of our age.

THE EFFECT OF WRITING INSTRUCTION ON STUDENTS' CREATIVE WRITING

Jacquelyn Fears
(EdS, Reading Instruction, August, 1986)

The purpose of this study was to determine the effect of formal writing instruction on students' creative writing.

The subjects in the study were 36 7th-grade students in gifted English classes at Pointe South Junior High School in Jonesboro, Georgia. The treatment group consisted of 16 students, and the nontreatment group consisted of 20 students. All subjects in the study had qualified for the gifted program in Clayton County.

The John Hopkins Model of Writing Instruction for Verbally Talented Youth was used for the treatment. The students in the treatment group received writing instruction using the exercises in the model. The students in the nontreatment group received no formal writing instruction but did have opportunities to write.

The writing of both groups was evaluated using the Georgia CBE Writing Assessment Analytical Scale. The writing was evaluated on quality, style, and mechanics.

The t-test was used to analyze the data, and the null hypotheses were not rejected at the .05 level of significance.

Results from the analyses showed that there was no significant difference in the gain scores on Quality, Style, or Mechanics of the prewriting and postwriting assignments of the students in the two groups.

These results indicate that more research is needed in the area of writing instruction and its effect of students' creative writing.

SEX-ROLE STRAIN AND ALCOHOLISM IN WOMEN

Ann S. Finley
(MA, Sociology, August, 1986)

Sex-role conflict and alcoholism in women was investigated using the concept of sex-role strain analysis. It was hypothesized that high sex-role strain would be related to alcoholism and also to low self-esteem. A third hypothesis, that alcoholism and low self-esteem would be related, was also investigated. The total sample included 38 women, 19 alcoholics and 19 non-alcoholics.

Results indicated that sex-role strain was not significantly related to either alcoholism or low self-esteem, though a trend in this direction was observed. Secondary findings were that low self-esteem and alcoholism were significantly related, and both were related to previous treatment for depression. Parental drinking behavior was found to be related to both high sex-role strain and to alcoholism. Further, the alcoholic women were more likely to be divorced or separated, to have less formal education and to have a lower family income that the non-alcoholic women.

A STUDY MEASURING SCIENTIFIC ATTITUDES AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP TO ACHIEVEMENT IN HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

David Alfred Giesel
(EdS, Secondary Education, August, 1986)

The purpose of this study was to measure the attitudes of high school students toward science and to determine whether a correlation between attitudes and achievement could be obtained. Attitudes were measured by the Scientific Attitude Inventory. Achievement was measured by science grade point average and results of the science section of the Iowa Test of Academic Proficiency.

The SAI was administered to 600 students at Lakeview-Ft. Oglethorpe High School in Catoosa County, Georgia. Of these, 145 were randomly selected as participants. The study was designed to determine whether measured differences in attitude for sex, grade level or course were significant. Scores on the attitude inventory were compared to scores on the achievement measures to determine correlation values.

Results showed that Lakeview-Ft. Oglethorpe students moderately accept positive scientific attitudes and moderately reject negative scientific attitudes although inconsistency was present as to the understanding of the nature of science and also in evaluating their emotional views of science. No significant differences were shown between scores on the SAI and sex

or grade level. Significant differences were obtained between SAI scores in biology grade 10 and biology grade 9, botany, human anatomy, and chemistry. No other significant differences between courses were obtained.

A moderate positive correlation (r=0.40) was obtained when comparing attitude to science grade point average; no significant correlation was evident when comparing attitude to Iowa TAP scores. Positive correlations between certain specific attitudes and achievement were noted, but many scientific attitudes were accepted regardless of the level of achievement.

THE USE OF AMERICAN IMPRESSIONISTIC ART TO ENRICH THE TEACHING OF AMERICAN HISTORY FROM 1860-1910

Roscoe Liston Googe, Jr.
(EdS, Secondary Education, August, 1986)

This study brings to the attention of American history teachers the vast potential of American impressionistic art as an instrument for enriching as well as supplementing the teaching of history. The major focal point was the artists who were active painting impressions of the American way of life at the end of the 19th century and early 20th century.

This study examines the use of impressionistic art in fifteen United States high school textbooks. Lower level textbooks were found to be very negligent in their use of impressionistic art and artists. The upper level texts were more noticeably aware of impressionists accomplishments. Teachers will be able to utilize supplementary materials in this study to enable students to better understand history not only from an artist's point of view, but of a person living in this period.

A FOLLOW-UP STUDY ON THE EFFECTS OF DEVELOPMENTAL FIRST GRADE ON FIFTH-GRADE STUDENTS AT EASTSIDE AND ANTIOCH ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Anthony E. Hohol
(EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1986)

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to determine if there was a significant difference between mean achievement scores in reading and mathematics of developmental first-grade students when compared to students not needing readiness at grade levels one, three, four, and five.

Methods and Procedures

This study was conducted at Eastside and Antioch Elementary Schools in Whitfield County. There were 25 randomly selected students in the control and experimental groups.

In the fall of the 1979-1980 school year, all first-grade students at Eastside and Antioch Elementary Schools were administered the Metropolitan Reading Readiness Test. Students with scores less than 40 were assigned to readiness classes for the remainder of the year. The readiness students participated in direct manipulative experiences built aroung the following core areas: (a) fine motor control, (b) five senses, (c) problem-solving skills, (d) oral language, (e) mathematics, and (f) art, music, health, social studies, and science.

Student records of the experimental and control groups furnished Metropolitan Achievement Test results in grade one and Scott Foresman Norm Referenced Test results in grades three through five in reading and mathematics.

The *t* test was used to test the null hypotheses. The level of significance for rejecting or accepting the null hypotheses was set at .05.

Results

Findings of the study were:

1. The control group scored significantly higher (P= .01) than the experimental group in reading at grade levels one, three, four, and five.

2. The control group scored significantly higher (P= .01) than the experimental group in mathematics at grade levels one, three, four, and five.

3. There was no significant difference between the control and experimental group means in mathematics at grade three.

Conclusions

Based on analysis of the data it was concluded that:

1. The developmental students never attained like scores in reading of the nondevelopmental students in grades one, three, four, and five.

2. The developmental students never attained like scores in mathematics of nondevelopmental students in grades four and five.

3. The nondevelopmental and developmental students attained like scores in mathematics at grade level three.

A DESCRIPTIVE EXPLORATION OF THE IMPOSTER PHENOMENON

Judith Anne Horton
(MA, Psychology, March, 1987)

In their work with high achieving women, Clance and Imes (1978) identified a pattern of self-doubt which they named the imposter phenomenon, connoting an inner sense of intellectual phoniness which persists despite objective evidence of one's ability and success. This study analyses dialogal interviews in order to examine the experience and meaning of the impostor phenomenon for the individual. Participants were six self-described impostor phenomenon sufferers. The empirical, descriptive methodology used provides a basis for contextualizing the relative significance of themes which emerge from the analysis of the data, as well as for evaluating the pertinence of the traditionally derived findings of previous research. The findings, although congruent with Clance and Imes' theoretical constructs, go beyond them in identifying how the "impostor" experiences herself, others, and achievement situations. It was found that the impostor phenomenon arises out of the interaction of polarized thinking with a sensitivity to the critical evaluation of others, and an identification with one's expressive rather than one's instrumental abilities.

A STUDY OF TEACHERS' OPINIONS TOWARD MERIT PAY IN DOUGLAS COUNTY

Marla L. Hutton
(EdS, Middle Grades Education, June, 1985)

The purpose of this study was to study teachers' opinions toward merit pay. Elementary, middle, and secondary teachers' opinions were compared as were union and nonunion teachers.

The population of the study consisted of the 173 elementary, middle, and secondary teachers in Douglas County during 1984-85. A 20-item questionnaire was developed by the researcher. Numerical values were assigned to the 20 merit pay statements to enable the researcher to analyze the data. Chi square was used and the .05 level of significance was established as the level at which the null hypothesis would be rejected.

The results indicated that there were five merit pay statements out of 20 that were significant when comparing elementary, middle, and secondary teachers. There was one significant statement when comparing union and nonunion teachers. Teachers did not favor being evaluated by the principal, committee or peer teachers, curriculum specialist, and

department head. The teachers agreed with their attendance, academic credits, individual projects, group projects and classroom performance being used as merit pay criteria.

THE EXPERIENCE OF TRANSFORMATION THROUGH THE ALEXANDER TECHNIQUE

Donna L. King
(MA, Psychology, December, 1986)

It is my intention in this paper to explore the psychological life of the body and to better understand how meaning is expressed through our embodiment. Specifically, I am interested in the psychological transformation which occurs when we embrace a radically new motility. My point of departure will be a phenomenological analysis of a group of the Alexander technique students, all of whom describe their experience as dramatically changed since embarking on a course of Alexander lessons.

I will begin my paper with a review of the literature on the Alexander technique—its history, praxis, and research methods. Following, I will present a method of phenomenological research and apply it to the study of five students of the Alexander technique. This section will culminate with a description of the general structure of the experience of transformation through the Alexander technique. Finally, I will conclude with a discussion section in which I draw conclusions based on my findings, relate these to others in the field of phenomenological and psychoanalytic psychology, and make suggestions for further study and investigations.

My interest in the Alexander technique began while I was living and working in New York City. Coming from a background of music, movement and psychology, I had heard of the Alexander technique from several acquaintances in the performing world. Alexander work was said to be subtle body work, involving gentle touch by a teacher along with certain instructions to "keep the head forward and up," and, "let the back lengthen and widen." Some people said they benefited from Alexander while others complained they felt little or nothing during lessons. Having had some difficulty in breathing freely while singing, and being at a crossroad in my career pursuits, I decided to try Alexander lessons and see what they could offer me.

Very early on, one of the most striking aspects of my lessons was the surge of emotions I felt when the teacher worked on certain parts of my body. I recognized that there seemed to be key areas of my body that when touched in a certain way, or encouraged to move or let go, elicited a wave of sadness or fear, or occasionally a sense of incredible release and

unburdenment. I felt an unhinging of psychological meaning, and I was fascinated by the fact that there was very little verbal communication going on between me and the teacher. These meaningful emotions emerged in tandem with the special tough of her hands and the deeply penetrating awareness with which I was feeling and sensing my body. I felt I was gaining new access to understanding myself in the world, a heightened awareness of being embodied. Conversation with my teacher revealed the commonality of my experience with those of other students of the Alexander technique.

The existence of this phenomenon was apparent, yet nowhere in the literature of the Alexander technique could I find research which satisfactorily described or analyzed the structure of the experience. It was an uncharted frontier and I the self-appointed pioneer exploring what many called "ephemeral" terrain. Armed with a novice understanding of phenomenological methodology and some important mentors to guide me along the way, I embarked on a quest that was to become this project: the pursuit of the phenomenon of transformation through the practice of the Alexander technique..

THE BATTLE OF JONESBORO: A LOCAL HISTORY PARADIGM AND ENRICHMENT UNIT FOR SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS IN SOUTH FULTON COUNTY, GEORGIA

James W. Leach
(EdS, Secondary Education, August, 1985)

The purpose of this historical project is to provide structured materials which will serve as a local history paradigm and as an enrichment unit for social studies teachers in south Fulton County. The structured materials will be useful in teaching a portion of the history of the area which used to be Campbell County.

This historical project consists of the following sections: (1) a review of the literature relevant to the teaching of local history (chapter 2), (2) a descriptive narrative of the Battle of Jonesboro accompanied by maps and illustrations (chapters 3-5), (3) a reader's guide of the literature pertaining to the Battle of Jonesboro (chapter 6), (4) a long-and-short driving tour of the area concerning the Battle of Jonesboro (chapter 7), (5) a summary of recommendations about doing a local history, and (6) the means for implementing this historical project (chapter 8). Social studies teachers will greatly benefit from the plethora of information presented in this historical project.

A STUDY OF PARENT INVOLVEMENT IN THE GIFTED EDUCATION PROGRAM IN FAYETTE COUNTY

Mary G. Perry
(EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1986)

The purpose of this study was to determine whether parents are actively involved in elementary gifted programs. Both parents and teachers of gifted students were surveyed. The subjects were the parents of the 423 students and the eight teachers of the elementary gifted students in Fayette County, Georgia, in May, 1986. A six item questionnaire was developed by the researcher, and results were analyzed using a Chi square formula with .01 level of significance established as the level at which the null hypothesis would be rejected. The results indicated that parents are not active in their child's program of gifted education. Parents do not feel they regularly communicate with the teacher, but do believe they understand what their child does in the gifted classes. Teachers tend to see parents as being more involved and report that parents communicate more regularly than the parents themselves think they do. Teachers and parents agree parents want to be more involved and be better informed about the program, but believe other commitments prohibit more participation.

THE EFFECTS OF SELF-CONCEPT IMPROVEMENT STRATEGIES ON ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT IN THE CLASSROOM

Joan B. Quijano
(EdS, Middle Grades Education, August, 1986)

This study was designed to determine the results of exposure to a self-concept program on mathematical test scores of fifth-grade students.

Subjects for the study were fifth-grade students at Taylorsville Elementary School. The subjects were intact groups found in the two fifth-grade classes whose total enrollment was 56 students. The experimental group and control group numbered 28 students each.

The study was conducted over a four week or 20 day period. The Systematic Teaching and Measuring Mathematics (STAMM) cluster tests were administered for the pretests and the posttests. The test scores from the pretest and posttest were used to calculate the analysis of covariance which did not result in statistically significant mean gains, at the 0.05 level of significance. Therefore the null hypothesis was not rejected. Conclusions, educational implications and recommendations for research were drawn from the results.

THE EFFECT OF PHYSICAL MATURITY RATE ON THE SELF-CONCEPT OF ADOLESCENT MALES

Linda Forester Seay
(EdS, Middle Grades Education, December, 1986)

This study was done to determine if there was a difference in the self-concept of males whose physical maturity was delayed and those whose physical maturity occurred at an earlier age. The study also was done to determine if self-concept differed between the subjects in the sixth grade and those in the eighth grade. A total of eighty-four subjects was identified by certified school counselors with the help of certificated physical education teachers within the schools from which the subjects were drawn. Identification was based on certain physical characteristics indicative of the onset and advancement of puberty. The sixth grade subjects were within the age limits of 11 years 0 months and 12 years 6 months; the eighth graders were within age limits of 13 years 0 months and 14 years 6 months. The Piers-Harris Self-Concept Scale was administered to all subjects by the school counselors in a morning test session during April, 1986. After the tests were scored, data were analyzed by using the two way analysis of variance and tested at a .05 level of significance. No significant difference was found to exist due to grade or to physical development. No interaction was found to exist among the groups.

TRANSFORMATION: THE ALCHEMY OF ADDICTION

Frank Rice Tiller, III
(MA, Psychology, August, 1986)

This study was undertaken to demonstrate that the individually destructive nature of addiction results from an inner division and polarities within the personality, and an inability to conjoin these separated parts into a cohesive holistic functioning. The study of Alchemy as a symbolic process of deep personality structure and spiritual development is used metaphorically within a Jungian context to define and elucidate the ways in which these conjunctions may be accomplished through a Program of Recovery in Alcoholics Anonymous or other anonymous programs. Information regarding the system and imagery of Alchemy as a science of transformation is presented in a broad framework to give the reader some feeling for the correspondence of symbol that reveals deeper and underlying meanings inherent to any Program of Recovery. The major historical development of Alcoholics Anonymous is described along with foundation concepts to assist all readers in understanding this current American self-help system. Poetic, historical, mythological, and

anthropological parallels are used to communicate spiritual types of personality phenomena which otherwise either remain in the realm of symbol, or tend to be misinterpreted by popular psychological systems, the medical community, and other methods relying on numerical data, causative projections, and so forth. An alchemical step formula combined with a discussion of the theory of archetypal manifestation is compared qualitatively to the growth experience of the Twelve Steps of A.A. and its ally organizations. The psychological need for spiritual expression from the total personality is discussed, with substance use viewed as a situating in time and social context the realization of transcendental absolutes. The attainment of experiential states such as those described by alchemy and later by such researchers as Huxley and Maslow are seen as a normal human function, and related to the arising Self as personality/existential meaning through a Program of Recovery.

POST-SECONDARY FOLLOW-UP OF LEARNING DISABLED ADOLESCENTS HAVING RECEIVED VOCATIONAL TRAINING

Janet M. Turner
(EdS, Special Education, March, 1987)

The impact of vocational/technical training at the secondary level of learning disabled students is analyzed to see if it has any bearing on the future vocational choice of those students. The analysis is figured by the follow-up of several learning disabled students who completed a year long vocational/technical training course while in high school to see if they continued in that same area of training upon graduation. Results will give some indication of whether or not vocational training for learning disabled students is of any benefit in helping them to determine a vocation upon graduation. Significance to the field of education will be as to whether or not these vocational training programs have any impact at all on these students.

THE EXPOSURE TO CAREERS IN YOUNG ADULT NOVELS: AN ASSESSMENT

Robert E. Twiggs
(EdS, Secondary Education, December, 1986)

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the extent of information that can be obtained about careers through the reading of young adult (YA) novels. One area examined was the degree or level of exposure that junior and senior high school students receive to adult careers in YA novels.

Another aspect of the study was to evaluate the portrayal of the adult in a particular career and to ascertain whether that portrayal is either negative, positive, or neutral. A third area of concern in this study was to determine whether a trend exists in YA novels toward portraying any particular socio-economic group.

A total of twenty-two novels was selected from the "Best Books" lists of *Booklists* for five years. The researcher read each of the selected novels thereby determining which careers were presented in each novel. The researcher noted the type of career based on level of skill required and whether the job was held by an adult or a teenager.

In addition to the above, the researcher noted whether the characters and their careers were portrayed negatively, positively, or neutrally. Nine career factors were evaluated: words associated with the career, ethical standards within the career, actions within the career, actions outside the career, emotional reward of the career, the handling of stress related to the career, lifestyle afforded by the career, and views of career held by other characters.

Conclusions drawn from this study indicate that in general adults and their careers in YA novels are portrayed in a neutral manner. The data indicated that exceptions did exist but that in most instances when an adult character was portrayed negatively in areas of his/her career he/she was portrayed positively or neutrally in other career factors. The data also indicated that educators were the most numerous adult group in YA novels. Clerks and food service personnel along with medical personnel were the next most prevalent groups. No single socio-economic group was given special treatment by YA novelists. The number of characters from the three skill levels was virtually equal as was their portrayal.

From the data and the review of the literature, the researcher concluded that using YA novels as a component of career awareness in conjunction with literature study is a viable choice for the classroom teacher, the school librarian, and the vocational and/or guidance counselor.

THE EFFECT OF VARIATIONS IN THE FORMATIVE-FEEDBACK-CORRECTIVE CYCLE ON STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT IN HIGH SCHOOL CHEMISTRY

Daisy G. Waldrep
(EdS, Secondary Education, August, 1985)

The purpose of this study was to determine whether there was a significant difference in the achievement of high school chemistry students due to variations in the formative-feedback-corrective cycle in a mastery

learning program. Achievement measures were scores on seven summative tests. Three intact classes were randomly assigned to three treatments: (1) no formative testing, (2) formative testing followed by feedback only, and (3) formative testing followed by feedback with suggested correctives. The treatments were reassigned during the study so that each class was exposed to each treatment. The prior course average was used to adjust for the effect of pre-knowledge. Analysis of covariance procedures on each of the seven summative tests indicated no significant differences between the three treatments or when formative testing was compared to no formative testing. When the two treatments with formative tests were compared, the results were not consistent. For three of the seven summative tests, significant differences were indicated between students who had correctives and those who had feedback only. Students who had correctives performed significantly better on these three objectives. No other significant differences were found.

A COMPARISON OF TRADITIONAL AND VISUAL FORMS METHODS IN ENGLISH COMPOSITION INSTRUCTION

Kathleen S. Yencha
(EdS, Secondary Education, March, 1987)

The purpose of this study was to determine whether seventh-grade students from regular language arts classes would show greater achievement gain in composition after having been instructed in exposition by visual forms methods that those students who were instructed by traditional methods. Sixty-one students participated in the study. Thirty-three students formed the experimental group, and 29 students were in the control group. The study was conducted during a 15-day instructional period during which time both groups were instructed in basic paragraph and essay development. Class periods were 55 minutes in length. The control group was instructed by traditional methods using lecture, basic textbook information, and worksheet activities. Only the experimental group included the use of "Hub and Spokes," "S-curve," and pyramid visual forms as illustration of the structure of paragraph and essay development. No visual forms were used by the control group. Personal essays were written by both groups as pretest and posttest writing samples before and after the 15-day instruction period. Scores obtained from these tests were used as data to test the null hypothesis which stated that there would be no significant difference in the writing achievement of students instructed by visual forms methods as opposed to instruction by traditional methods. The null hypothesis was tested using the Analysis of Variance at the .05 level of significance and was not accepted since the

mean gain score of the experimental group was 1.0, from pretest to posttest, whereas the mean gain score of the control group was 10.0 from pretest to posttest. The difference between the two means resulted in a ratio of $F(1, 56) = 4.29$, p .05.

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